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ART. I.—OUR COMMERCIAL RELATIONS WITH BRITISH AMERICAN COLONIES.

THE subject of our commercial relations with the British North American Colonies, namely, Canada, New-Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward's Island, is one of immense and increasing importance. It is one, too, that has occupied a large share of the diplomatic attention of our government, and has led to much legislation, from time to time, on the part of both Great Britain and the United States.

We propose to discuss this important and highly interesting subject under the three following heads :

I. The present state of our commercial relations with the British American Colonies.

II. The present character and amount of our trade with those colonies.

III. How our trade with those colonies can be improved.

I. Immediately after the peace of 1783, by which England acknowledged the independence of the United States, the subject of our commercial relations with the British American Colonies, in the North, began to be agitated by the British government; and if the wise counsels of the great William Pitt, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, had been heeded, our commerce with those colonies would have then been placed on a basis, which, while it secured peace and harmony between the two countries, would have rendered our present commerce immensely greater than it is.

Mr. Pitt contended, in the British parliament, for establishing our intercourse with Great Britain and her colonies on the most liberal and extensive principles of reciprocal benefit to both countries; and for this purpose he actually introduced into parliament a bill, as preliminary to further and more liberal legislation, for abolishing all prohibitions and restrictions of intercourse then existing, and for placing our trade with the colonies on the same footing as that of the mother country with them.

The liberal policy of Mr. Pitt was completely defeated by the shortsighted enemies of America, and of their own best interests, in the British parliament, and the whole subject of the regulation of our trade with England and its colonies was placed at the discretion of the crown. Since that time, England has labored to wrest from us, as much as possible, all the advantages of trade with her colonies, while our government has contended for a fair reciprocity and equal competition.

It is a curious circumstance in the commercial history of England, showing how completely that power is governed by her own selfish interests, and how flexible her policy is, that, in 1807, when our Congress passed the embargo law, England immediately authorized the governors of all the British American Colonies to open their ports to American vessels, thus abandoning in war an interdict which she had promulgated in peace ; for, from 1783 till the time of our embargo in 1807, our vessels had been excluded from the ports of the British colonies. This extraordinary movement on the part of England showed the immense importance, the indispensableness, in fact, of our trade to the British colonies.

The first successful attempt to improve our commercial relations with the British American Colonies was made by President Jackson, in 1829, when he instructed Mr. McLane, our minister at St. James's, to open negotiations on the subject, the result of which was, that our ports of entry were opened to British and British colonial vessels, while all *free* colonial ports were opened to ours ; but still the duties in the colonial ports were higher than ours ; and besides, the *free* colonial ports were few in number, compared with those that were not free. Thus, while all of our ports were opened to British vessels, only a few colonial ports were opened to ours. Thus was Mr. McLane completely outwitted by British diplomats. The advantage was entirely on the side of the British, as was shown by the operation of the new regulations. The increase of British tonnage in our ports was ten times greater than that of our own in the colonial ports ; for British vessels could enter all the colonial ports, while we could enter only a few.

This great disadvantage on our part became a subject of loud complaint among our citizens, and petitions were presented to Congress by the citizens of New-Orleans, Boston, and other ports of the Union, calling for a modification of the regulations governing our trade with the British American Colonies.

Nothing, however, was effected, until the recent changes of the navigation laws of England, in 1849 ; but still, although the effect of Mr. McLane's negotiations was unequal, our trade has steadily and greatly increased, since 1829, in consequence of these negotiations.

At present, all discriminating duties in the British colonial ports are abolished. "American and other foreign manufactures are now admitted into the British North American Colonies, and in many of the West India colonies, on the same terms as British goods. The tariff of imports, however, in the different colonies varies, each colony being allowed to regulate its own tariff, provided no discriminations are made.

The tariff duties on imports into the different British American Colonies, does not differ much from the following statement :

On agricultural products.....	20	per cent.
Manufactures.....	12½	" "
Raw materials.....	2½	" "
Groceries, specific.....	18 to 75	" "

The system of free-ports, into which ports our vessels are allowed to enter only, is still kept up ; and besides this unfair regulation, there is another equally, if not more annoying. It is, that while American vessels may enter all the lake and river ports in Canada, west of St. Regis, on the St. Lawrence River, they are not permitted to descend that river lower than Montreal, without special permission from the government. They are not allowed to pass out to sea.

There is also another regulation which appears somewhat whimsical ; it is, that while an American vessel is allowed to sail from a colonial port to any other colonial port, or to Great Britain, with colonial or other produce, and to enter all colonial ports where there is a custom-house officer, loading and discharging its cargo, it is not allowed to sail from one port to another port in the same colony, *except in ballast*.

It is not a little singular, that each of the British American Colonies should have its own separate tariff, thus creating a restraint on the trade of one of them with another. A vessel sailing from Nova Scotia to a port in New-Brunswick, must pay a tariff duty in the latter port, and *vice versa*. The inconvenience and ruinous effects that would attend such a system in the United States, between the different states, is apparent to every American ; and yet the enlightened colonial subjects of Queen Victoria cannot see them. Our perfect freedom from all restraints upon our internal trade, is one of the great sources of our prosperity. If each of our states had its separate tariff system of duties, all our state lines would be studded with custom-houses, and each state would have to maintain an army of custom-house officers ! Smuggling, then, would become a virtue, and the beauties of the tariff system would then be fully developed. With our prosperous example of perfect exemption from all state tariffs fully before their eyes, it is not a little surprising that our neighbors of the British American Colonies should continue such a system. But some in this world either cannot see, or will not see ; and so they have to suffer the consequences.

With this brief account of the present condition of our commercial relations with the British American colonies, we now proceed to consider—

II. *The present character and amount of our trade with those colonies.*

The first report made to our government, on the subject of our trade with the British American Colonies, was ordered, we believe, by the Hon. Mr. Meredith ; and the second by Mr. T. Corwin, from which we derive many of the facts and details which are contained in this paper.

All of our information regarding trade is derived from custom-house returns ; but as these returns are, at best, only approximations,

and almost invariably far below the real truth, in respect to values, great allowance must be made, in determining from those returns the actual amount of trade. It is stated in Mr. Corwin's report, that if 20 per cent. were added to the custom-house returns, in determining the amount of our trade with the British American Colonies, it would not be too great an addition.

It is to be borne in mind that, in this paper, we confine ourselves to the trade of this country alone with the British American Colonies.

The trade of this country, by sea, with those colonies, is carried on chiefly by British vessels, owing to our vessels, by the convention of 1830, being restricted only to a certain number of what are called free colonial ports, while British vessels may enter all ports both of the colonies and of this country.

The total exports to the colonies, from the United States, in 1840, were \$6,100,501, which, in 1850, had increased to \$9,549,035, an increase of more than 50 per cent. in ten years.

In 1849, our imports to the colonies were as follows:

To Canada.....	\$4,971,420
New-Brunswick.....	1,058,248
Nova Scotia.....	1,411,828
Newfoundland.....	935,400
Prince Edward's Island.....	65,524
	<hr/>
	\$8,442,420

We will endeavor to give some details regarding our trade with each of the above colonies.

CANADA.

Canada has only two ports for sea commerce, Montreal and Quebec; but as these are not free ports, our imports reach them only by British vessels from the sea, or by American vessels from the lakes.

The articles imported from the United States into Canada, are: tobacco, sugar, molasses, maize, pork, coal, salt, American manufactures of cotton sheetings and shirtings, warp yarn, wadding, batting, plain and printed calicoes, satinets, woolens, cassimeres, kerseys, leather manufactures, doeskins, machinery, paints, oils, edge tools, agricultural implements, India rubber manufactures; also, large quantities of tea, coffee, and other foreign products, under the drawback law, consisting chiefly of sugars, cigars, dried fruits, wines, hides, and hardware.

The exports from Canada to the United States consist of lumber, wheat, flour, vegetables, seeds, ashes, wool, eggs, and coarse grains for distilling. Timber and lumber are, and ever have been, the great staple exports of Canada. The lumber trade of Canada, in 1846, amounted to \$6,000,000. Canada now supplies one-third of all the lumber used in the Hudson River markets; and its lumber trade is rapidly increasing.

The inland exports of Canada to the United States, in 1848, were about \$3,000,000. These inland exports have been materially increased by the late changes in the commercial policy of England, by

those in the provincial and United States tariffs, and by the United States draw-back law.

Of these \$3,000,000 of exports, \$250,000 worth went to New-York for re-shipment to Great Britain, under the drawback law.

The returns of the trade of Canada with this country, for the year ending January 5, 1851, show that the trade is in a highly prosperous condition, and rapidly increasing. They are as follows :

Imports from the United States,.....	\$7,404,800
Exports to the United States,.....	5,813,500

This shows what certain short-sighted political economists call a "balance of trade" against Canada; but we have no complaints from the Canadians of an "alarming balance of trade," but, on the contrary, the most ample evidence of their rapidly increasing prosperity. It would be a sorry state of affairs, indeed, if the outgoes were greater than the incomes; or if they only just balanced each other; for, in the former case, a decline of prosperity, a ruinous retrogradation, would be manifest; and in the latter, a miserable unprogressiveness in commercial affairs.

The inland trade of Canada with this country has had to contend with the restrictive and unnatural policy of a host of prohibition laws, passed by the British parliament; together with colonial and United States tariffs, which have, to a great extent, checked it, to the injury of both countries.

NEW-BRUNSWICK.

Next to Canada, our trade with New-Brunswick is the most important. Bordering on Maine, a species of inland traffic exists between Maine and New-Brunswick, on the Upper St. John, and on the St. Croix River, similar to that carried on between Canada and the Americans in the Niagara district. Since the settlement of the north-eastern boundary question, our trade with New-Brunswick has greatly increased. This trade is chiefly in lumber. The lumber trade of the St. John River, on the American territory, has been about \$800,000 during the last five years.

The staple exports of New-Brunswick are timber, lumber, the produce of its fisheries, coal, asphaltum, gypsum, grindstones, and manganese. Ship-building is also carried on extensively. Large numbers of vessels, of all sizes, are annually built for foreign markets. Ship-building is the staple manufacture of New-Brunswick. It is said that vessels of the same quality, in every respect as our best, can be built there for two-thirds of the cost in the United States.

The entire trade of New-Brunswick with the United States may be stated as follows, for 1850 :

Imports from the United States,.....	\$2,030,000
Exports to the United States,.....	200,000

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

The exports of these colonies are the same as those of New-Brunswick, with the addition of agricultural products. The amount of their trade with this country annually is nearly as follows :

Imports from the United States,.....	\$1,800,000
Exports to the United States,.....	900,000

Ship-building is also extensively carried on in these colonies. In 1849, they manufactured 221 vessels. They have 34 free ports.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

The staple products of this island are furnished by its fisheries to which may be added its furs and skins from Labrador, and its seal fisheries. The gross amount of exports from this island, in 1849, to all parts of the world, was about \$4,000,000. In 1827, our trade with the island was absolutely nothing. It is now nearly as follows :

Imports from the United States,.....	\$1,000,000
Exports to the United States,.....	78,000

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

The products of this island are chiefly agricultural ; its chief exports being grains, flour, vegetables, beef, pork, and animals. But little fish is exported. Our trade with this island is very small :

Imports from the United States,.....	\$100,000
Exports to the United States,.....	6,000

The shores of Newfoundland, Prince Edward's Island, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia, swarm with fishermen, but Americans are not allowed to fish within three marine miles of the land. Such is the stipulation agreed upon, to exist *forever*, in our treaty of 1818 with England. This arrangement, it was thought by John Bull, would effectually guard him against any intrusions ; but it is now found, that either from the superior diligence and skill of the Americans, or because the fish bite better at that distance from the shore, the Americans catch more fish than the English. The latter complain bitterly, and annoy the Americans when they can. As the treaty of 1818 does not specify the points from which the three marine miles shall be measured, the English, wishing to push the Americans as far out to sea as possible, contend that the prescribed distance of three miles should be measured from the head-lands, many of which project a long distance into the ocean. This subject has been several times made a matter of negotiation, and is not yet decided. As late as 1845, it was a subject of inquiry on the part of our minister at St. James, Mr. Stephenson, but nothing was done. The legislatures of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward's Island, have petitioned the British parliament on the subject, but without relief.

Nova Scotia furnishes the largest amount of fish to the United States. In 1849, the quantity sent from Halifax alone to the United States was, of pickled fish, 100,800 barrels. In 1847, Halifax exported hither 124,565 barrels of mackerel, besides large quantities of salmon, herring, and codfish.

We will now proceed to consider—

III. *How our trade with the British American Colonies can be improved.*

The great impediment to our commerce with the British American Colonies is that presented by the present foolish and impolitic com-

mercial enactments and treaties both of England and of this country, to which we should also add the colonial tariffs. If these were all swept away, as they should be, the present trade would be immediately greatly increased, and greatly to the profit, of course, of both countries.

The true object of all commercial legislation should be to facilitate commerce ; but unfortunately for the world, the progress of trade, has always been checked, if not altogether stopped, by the ignorant intermeddling of governments and legislatures. We say ignorant, because a correct understanding of the principles of political economy and the laws of trade would teach legislators that all attempts "to regulate trade" tend only to diminish those very advantages which they hope to acquire by their legislation. They proceed on the false principle that trade is a thing to be regulated, which is the same thing as saying that there are no natural principles which govern trade, and that therefore they must be supplied by legislation. Ignorance of political economy and the selfishness and cupidity of nations, have done more to retard commerce and civilization than all other causes combined. The laws of trade are just as fixed and unalterable as those that preside over the motions of the planetary masses, or that regulate chemical affinities ; and it is just as absurd to attempt to modify or regulate the former by legislation as the latter. And yet there are legislators in all countries who believe that Nature's laws governing trade are defective, and need patching.

To such a belief must we ascribe all the present tariff laws and commercial restrictions that exist, for the regulation of the trade between Great Britain and this country ; and the entire past history of the commerce of the two nations clearly shows, that if these were all swept away, their commerce would soon attain a degree of prosperity which it never can attain under the present system.

Every removal of restrictions on trade has invariably and speedily led to increasing commercial prosperity ; whence, we may reasonably infer, that a removal of all restrictions would make our commercial prosperity complete.

It was thought a very wise remark of the great Mr. Canning, when he observed, in 1826, that "to allow a foreign ship to enter colonial ports is a boon." A boon, indeed ! and quite as great a boon to England as to America, although Mr. Canning could not see how. Great as he was, he never learned the truth, that a perfectly free trade between two countries could not benefit one without equally benefiting the other. It is not less a truth in trade than in physics, that action and re-action are equal. Of the truth of this, the history of commerce furnishes a thousand striking demonstrations.

The foolish restrictions imposed upon commerce—and we can call them nothing else but foolish—deprive nations of a thousand mutual advantages, and check and distort the developments of humanity and the progress of civilization. The truth of this remark is illustrated by the character of our present commercial relations with Britain and its colonies. Here, neighboring to us, in the British American Colonies, is a population of near 3,000,000 of people, industrious, intelligent, enterprising, and occupying a country of more than

500,000 square miles, with a healthy invigorating climate, and of the most valuable and superabundant agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing resources. Its facilities for river and lake navigation are unparalleled. It is watered throughout by streams affording an unlimited amount of water power; its fisheries are the most valuable in the world; its seacoast is indented with numerous admirable harbors. And to these unsurpassed physical capabilities we may add a truly vast and imposing system of internal improvements, projected and completed for the purpose of overcoming the natural impediments of the St. Lawrence River and the Falls of Niagara, and thus connecting the ocean with the great western lakes. These vast improvements, by which a vessel of 300 tons burthen, and capable of carrying 3,000 barrels of flour, and of a draft of nine feet water, can now, but for certain enactments of wise legislators, pass from the harbor of Chicago to the ocean, and thence to any part of the globe, reflect the highest credit on the intelligence, industry, and enterprise of the Canadian people, shackled as they are by the policy and nature of a ruling monarchical government 3,000 miles off. The difference between Canada and this country is striking; and we can only ascribe it to the difference in the form of government, for we have abundant evidence that the energies of the Canadians would have made them a very different people, but for their government.

To gratify her fondness for "regulating trade" and imposing tariffs, England has ever kept the St. Lawrence, the great outlet of Canadian commerce, closed to all but her own vessels. By thus doing, she has inflicted immense evil upon the Canadians and herself, while she has thus stimulated the energies of *our* people to devise means of overcoming the bar to a more free intercourse, interposed by the closing of that river. The trade of the Canadas is a prize for which our people—we do not say our government—have long contended. They have succeeded at last. The Mississippi valley is not the sole abdomen of plenty that the energies and enterprise of our people have subjected to a commercial paracentesis. The operation of "tapping" the Canadas, as well as the Mississippi valley, has engaged the attention of our people for years; and they have at last succeeded in opening no less than six broad channels, through which the wealth of the Canadas is now flowing, namely,—the Erie Canal, the Champlain Canal, the Ogdensburg and Boston, and the Buffalo and Boston rail-roads, and the Erie and New-York Rail-road, and the Montreal and Portland rail-roads.

These outlets to Canadian and Western trade now render the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, below Montreal, a matter of less moment; and the more so, because the St. Lawrence, even though its navigation were free, is closed by ice for several months in the year.

There is but one course now left by which our trade with the British American Colonies can be improved, and that is by reciprocal free trade. The Canadian government has generously taken the first step in this important matter, by proposing to our government to establish reciprocal free trade in certain articles, the products of both countries. This is a liberal offer, and we do not see how our govern-

ment can refuse to accept it. It recommends itself strongly to our best interests, and we cannot reject the offer without withholding from ourselves the highest commercial advantages.

Although the subject of reciprocal free trade with Canada has long been agitated, we do not know of a single valid objection that can be raised against it, once the measure has been sanctioned by the United States House of Representatives.

It is admitted by all, that the perfectly unrestrained commerce existing between the several states of this Union, has been a very prominent cause of our national prosperity ; and from this it is quite natural to infer, that by extending this unrestrained commerce to the British American Colonies, another powerful element of prosperity would be gained. Canada is now willing to withdraw her part of the restrictions : and it now remains for us to say, whether we will deny ourselves the immense advantages that would result to us from a free intercourse with our colonial neighbors. Such an arrangement would make our trade with the British American Colonies only a portion of our home internal trade ; and it is admitted, by all political economists, that the home trade of a country is vastly more important than its foreign. This is true, at least of our own country ; for our internal trade averages \$92 for each individual of our population, while our foreign trade is only \$7 for each individual.

Even under the present unnatural restrictive system, the latest returns show that we export more of our domestic manufactures to Canada alone than to any other country. Our exports to Canada alone, in 1850, were equal to the whole amount exported to Sweden, Prussia, Holland, Portugal and Mexico.

Such are the advantages which our great Atlantic cities would afford to the colonial merchants for trade, if the existing tariff restrictions were removed, that the system, heretofore pursued by them, of importing direct from foreign ports, would be abandoned, and they would make all their purchases in our cities. Under our present tariff, however, of 20 per cent., they cannot do this, since the high duties prevent them from exchanging, in our markets, their products for ours. If they buy now in our Atlantic cities, it is only by bank drafts, specie, or their equivalents ; but this causes such a drain upon their banks, that their trade with us is very much embarrassed and limited. If we would have the 3,000,000 of our British colonial neighbors trade with us, we must allow them to bring their products into our markets, without paying a duty of 20 per cent., which duty at present amounts to a prohibition. It also leads to a vast deal of smuggling along our entire and extensive northern frontier. It is highly probable, that the amount of goods annually smuggled from both countries across the line, is nearly, if not quite equal to the amount which pays duty ; for the frontier is so extensive, and the population so dense, on both sides, that it would require an army of custom-house officers and a fleet of revenue cutters to prevent it. Smuggling is called "a demoralizing traffic ;" but as the right of trade is a natural right, and as smuggling is only the natural means of asserting this natural right, it may well be questioned, whether it is not rather the tariff which is "demoralizing," than the business of smug-

gling. Be this as it may, it is certain that high duties operate as a bounty for smugglers. Mr. J. D. Andrews, the United States Consul at Saint John, New-Brunswick, in his very able report to our government, on the trade, commerce, and resources of the British North American Colonies, from which we have taken many of the facts contained in this paper, very significantly observes, in speaking of "the necessity of a thorough remodeling of our lake-port custom-houses, as follows :

"To one fact I deem it my duty specially to call your attention, viz : the practice, in several inland ports, for each collector, on retiring from office, to carry away with him the books and accounts, on the plea, that having paid for the stationery from his private funds, they are private property, the government not making any allowance for this item of public expenditure."

Undoubtedly those "books and accounts," if suffered to see the light, would tell a tale ! They would illustrate, in a most striking manner, "the demoralizing effects" of tariffs upon custom-house officers and others.

The entire line of our northern frontier, including Lake Champlain, open for smuggling and bribery of custom-house officers, is nearly 5,000 miles in length.

The system of reciprocal free trade, proposed by the Canadians, is not subject to the objections made to a transatlantic free trade by the friends of protective tariffs. The American protective policy is defended mainly on the ground that we should be protected against the advantages which the European manufacturer has over us, in the abundance and cheapness of his capital and labor ; and that we should be relieved from the fluctuations of foreign trade. But none of these reasons will justify a tariff to protect us against colonial producers or manufacturers ; for they have not the advantage, over us, of more abundant and cheaper capital and labor. The prices of labor in the British American Colonies are nearly if not quite as high, as in this country. What we want most is a free outlet for our surplus products.

It would be easy to refute the many frivolous objects which the advocates of protective tariffs make to reciprocal free trade with Canada, and the other British colonies. We will only say, that, in considering large commercial questions, it is quite unworthy of a great nation to enter into petty calculations of the advantages it gives and takes in trade. The enlightened and liberal views of Mr. Pitt, in 1782, who contended for an "equal and honest reciprocity" in trade between the two countries, are the only ones worthy of a great nation like ours.

In return for this reciprocity of trade with us, Canada proposes to open the navigation of the St. Lawrence. This would certainly be a valuable acquisition to us, as is proved by the numerous petitions of our citizens in Michigan, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, and New-York, (who certainly are the best judges,) presented to Congress, praying for the adoption of measures to have that river opened to the shipping of the lakes. If there was no advantage in having that river opened, such petitions would not appear in Congress.

Although the artificial outlets to the upper lake and Canadian commerce are numerous, yet the St. Lawrence has some important advantages over these. If the navigation of that river was free, all our shipping on all the lakes, from Chicago to Oswego, could pass down to the ocean with full cargoes.

The St. Lawrence is to the North and West, what the Mississippi is to the South and West. The St. Lawrence has a course of 1800 miles, and drains a basin of 1,000,000 of square miles. It is the natural outlet of Michigan, a portion of Wisconsin, Illinois and Indiana, of northern Ohio, northern Pennsylvania, northern and western New-York, and of western Vermont—a vast district of country, comprising the principal portion of the wheat-growing region of the United States. According to Mr. Buel's able report on the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, the trade in wheat in this vast region, in 1841, amounted to 2,780,000. In 1847 it had risen to 10,688,514 bushels, an increase of 17 per cent. per annum. If this same rate of increase were to continue till 1857, the value of the wheat, then, in the valley of the St. Lawrence, at the present prices, would be over \$170,000,000.

As commerce always seeks the shortest routes, it may be interesting to consider the advantages which the free navigation of the St. Lawrence would afford in this respect.

A glance at the map will show that the shortest route to Europe, from the heart of North America, is by this river. The shortest route from New-Orleans to Liverpool is up the Mississippi and Ohio to Pittsburg, and thence to Lake Erie, and down the St. Lawrence. The route to Europe, from all the lake-ports, by way of the St. Lawrence, is several hundred miles nearer than by any other route. This is one important advantage to our north-western trade, which, added to there being no unloading of cargoes in the whole route, renders the free navigation of the St. Lawrence a matter highly desirable to the North-west.

If the St. Lawrence was open to our vessels, it is highly probable that vast quantities of the products of the Mississippi valley would find their way to Europe by that route; for when once on shipboard at Chicago, or at other lake-ports, it would naturally and easily take the shortest route. This route, too, would have an advantage over all others, derived from climate and latitude. The pork, bacon, lard, and flour, of the Mississippi valley, would escape the injurious heat of other routes, by taking that of the St. Lawrence.

Another important advantage to be derived from the opening of the St. Lawrence would be, that the vast amount of shipping that is kept idle during the long winters in the lakes, by the ice, could pass down to the ocean, on the approach of winter, and be profitably employed on the ocean.

It is to be hoped that the present session of Congress will take some action on this important subject: for it is one not only of vital importance in a commercial point of view, but also one nearly connected with the maintenance of our present friendly relations with Great Britain. It would be a digression, not contemplated when we commenced this paper, to view our subject in respect to our relation of amity with Great Britain, and we shall, therefore, make but thi-

short allusion to it. In less than a quarter of a century, the population of the great North-west will count millions, where it now counts tens of thousands; and then they will feel more than ever the importance to them of the St. Lawrence, as their natural outlet to the ocean; and they will then begin to regard the free navigation of that river as a "*natural right*," which, if not peaceably granted, might be forcibly taken.

We will conclude this paper by a brief observation on the present indications of public sentiment in Canada, regarding the opening of the St. Lawrence. From certain movements in Montreal and Quebec, it would appear, that the refusal of our government to reciprocate the liberal policy of the Canadian government, would lead to the immediate adoption, by the latter, of measures of retaliation. The tardy movements of our government have already aroused the merchants of Montreal and Quebec, who advocate, in common with the manufacturers of England, the imposition of differential duties against American manufactures. This would probably be the first retaliatory act; and the second would be the closing of all the Canadian canals, now so extensively and profitably used by our lake commerce. It must be admitted, that the offer of the Canadians to establish a system of free trade with us, and to open the St. Lawrence, is highly liberal; and when it is considered that the average Canadian duties on our products is only $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., while ours on their products is $23\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., it would seem that our government could not, with any show of liberality and grace, refuse reciprocity, in view, too, of the many advantages our trade would derive from it, and the loud call for it from so many of our citizens.

ART. II.—THE POST SYSTEM.*

HISTORY OF THE POST SYSTEM—THE UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE; ITS HISTORY—THE POSTMASTER-GENERAL—BUREAUX OF THE GENERAL POST-OFFICE—POSTMASTERS; THEIR DUTIES, &c.—TRANSPORTATION OF THE MAIL—DISTRIBUTION—RATES OF INTERNAL POSTAGE—RATES OF FOREIGN POSTAGE—MAILING OF NEWSPAPERS, COLLECTION OF POSTAGE, AND DELIVERY OF LETTERS—LETTER-CARRIERS AND MAIL-AGENTS; POSTAGE STAMPS AND ADVERTISING—THE FRANKING PRIVILEGE AND LOST LETTERS—EXPENSES AND RECEIPTS OF THE DEPARTMENT, &c., &c., 1851.

In Vol. II. we presented an elaborate paper upon the Post System, promising some day or other to continue and complete the subject, which we now take occasion to do, bringing it down to date.—[Ed.]

THE system of posts, as at present in operation, is an invention of modern times. It has contributed much more than is generally supposed to the elevation and improvement of mankind. In addition to

* The United States Post-Office Guide, by Eli Bowen, late of the General Post-Office. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., pp., 352. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

the material, and by consequence more tangible benefits which it has, in common with the steam-engine and other similar inventions, conferred upon the more civilized portion of the human race, it has contributed not a little to its political and social advancement, and is destined, in the future, to work out in this field yet more important and more striking results. How much our own country is indebted for its prosperity—a prosperity in some respects unequalled, perhaps, in the world's history—to its extensive and well-ordered post-office system, will appear at a glance to any one who has reflected upon the intimate connection which subsists between the various parts of the wide-extended, yet, through the medium of this very agency, admirably consolidated confederacy. Nor are we alone the recipients of its blessings. Its advantages are enjoyed also by all the Christian nations of Europe, and, in particular, by those which are most celebrated for their continual advances in commerce, science, and the arts. All these, and ourselves among them, have reaped, not only as integral states, but as individual nations forming component parts of one great community, numerous and signal advantages from the establishment of posts within their boundaries—benefits which we can hardly estimate at this day, and for which, apart from the post system, we might, indeed, as did the ancients, have sighed, but would, as they have, sighed in vain.

HISTORY OF THE POST SYSTEM.—The word *post* is derived from the Latin *ponere, to place*; the post being so called, probably because horses were placed (*i. e.* posted) at fixed distances, for the transport of dispatches. Posts were first used, as far as we know historically, by Darius I., of Persia, (500 B. C.) who employed them solely for the use of the government. The dispatches were transmitted with extraordinary speed along the high road which connected the western part of his empire with the seat of government, by couriers trained to the business, and furnished with frequent relays of horses.

The most complete system of posts known in the ancient world, was established by Augustus in the Roman Empire. The head of the department was the commander of the Praetorian guards. These posts were employed only by the government, chiefly for the purpose of obtaining intelligence from the army. By their means messages were sent with surprising swiftness: for Augustus, on several occasions, received dispatches in four days from Slavonia; and, at a later period, Tiberius was wont to reject as valueless, dispatches which had consumed more than twenty days in coming from Asia, fifteen from Europe, ten from Africa, five from Slavonia, and three from any part of Italy.

The first regular establishment of posts in modern Europe, was the work of Louis XI., of France, (July 19th, 1464,) who founded post stations, four miles apart, on the chief roads of his kingdom, for the use of the government and court. Subsequently under Charles VIII., (1560,) private individuals were permitted to make use of the institution for forwarding letters and dispatches; the money charged for transmitting which, formed thereafter a source of revenue for the government. Under Louis XIII., (1630,) the system received a form

more regular and complete ; and a comptroller-general of posts was appointed. Previously to the time of Louis XI., dispatches were sent by special messengers, sometimes mounted and sometimes on foot ; the nearest approach to a regular post system being that made by the university of Paris, which maintained, as early as the 13th century, pedestrian messengers, who, at stated times, took charge of letters and money for the young men who had come from every part of Europe to pursue their studies in the university. For more than one hundred years, the French post was farmed out by the government ; first by the minister Louvois, under Louis XIV., (1676,) and, for the last and twenty-third time, under Louis XVI., (1786.) At the expiration of this last lease, (1791,) the establishment was taken under royal management ; from which time it has been conducted with less expense and with more benefit to the people. When the post was farmed out for the third time, (1688,) the revenue which it yielded amounted to 1,400,000 francs ; in 1733, to 3,000,000 ; and, in 1791, to 11,000,000 francs. From 1814 to 1822, the average annual yield of the letter posts was 21,890,000 francs. At the head of the entire post-office establishment is placed a general director ; in each department is a post-inspector, and in each post-office a director, a comptroller, and an adequate number of assistants. Until the revolution of 1789, the postmasters possessed civil immunities of various kinds, in consideration of which, they transported the mail for a small compensation ; but these privileges were taken away when the republic was proclaimed, and a salary granted instead, by the National Assembly. In 1823, the postmasters received, for carrying the mail and for dispatching public expresses, thirty sous (or cents) per stage for each horse, and twenty-five sous for each courier,—by one or more of whom every mail must be accompanied. Their contracts for transporting the mail are made with the director-general of the posts. Postmasters take an oath to preserve the inviolability of letters passing through their hands ; but, until of late years, (since 1828,) the government has claimed, and sometimes exercised the right of examining their contents. In 1847, there were in France 3,582 post-offices ; the circulation in the mails for that year amounting to one hundred and fifteen millions of letters, against sixty millions in the mails of the United States. The rates of letter postage have been, for some time, two sous for the first twenty-five English miles, and a corresponding advance for each prescribed distance. The late change in the regulations has fixed a uniform rate of four sous (about four cents) for any distance within the republic.

In Germany, the first post was established by Roger I., count of Thurn, Taxis, and Valsassina, in Tyrol, in the latter part of the 15th century. Subsequently other posts were established in the empire, the most important by counts of the same family ; and, in 1543, Leonard of Taxis was appointed postmaster-general of the empire, in which office he was afterwards confirmed, and, finally, in 1615, his descendant, Lamoral, was invested with the imperial post as an imperial fief, with the right of transmission to his posterity. A

regular post went at that time every week from the imperial court, and also from Rome, Venice, etc., to Augsburg, and thence to Brussels and back. This imperial post ceased to exist as such when the empire was dismembered, (1806.) Since that period, post establishments of different kinds have existed in the various states of Germany. At present, Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, Baden, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Holstein-Oldenburg, Holstein-Lauenburg, and Luxemburg, have each their own independent posts; but the house of Thurn and Taxis still possess, as a fief, confirmed finally by the Congress of Vienna, the posts in Wurtemberg, Hesse-Nassau, the states of the Saxon-Ernestine line, the two Schwarzenbergs, Hohenzollern, Waldeck, Lippe-Detmold, and in the territories of the princes of Reuss. In other states, the Thurn and Taxis post exists, not as a fief, but founded on a regular compact. The whole post establishment of this family is superintended by a postmaster-general at Frankfort-on-the-Maine; and it extends over an area of 25,000 miles, containing 3,753,450 inhabitants. It is, in fact, a private monopoly, managed for the benefit of its owner. Lichtenstein has no post.

In Germany, the stage-coaches (called *fahrende posten*) are usually united with the post-offices; by which parcels may be sent as safely as letters: an advantage by no means compensating, however, for the accompanying loss of speed in the transmission of letters and dispatches. Mail contracts are made at fixed prices: an allowance per mile for the ordinary service, and a share of the profit for extra work. The scale of postages in the different German states resembles in general that of Prussia, "which," says Mr. Bowen, "commences with a rate for the first two miles, equal to about 9½ miles English, of one silver groschen, equal to 2½ cents, increasing by a groschen for each interval of from five to ten miles German, with an intervening half rate. A reform in postage has been decreed by a recent postal congress at Dresden, fixing two rates in substitution of the foregoing: one of five kreutzers, (old German convention money,) about equal to five cents, for any distance not exceeding ninety-five miles (English); and the other, ten kreutzers, or cents, for any distance over."

The post establishments of other European continental countries are modeled after those of France or Germany. In the kingdom of the Netherlands, the system of France, introduced upon the incorporation of that country with the French empire, is still followed with little alteration. To the house of Thurn and Taxis is due the honor of having first introduced the post into the country. In Italy, since 1815, the post system in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, conforms to the Austrian model, still preserving, however, the French basis which was given it on the union of those states with the empire of France. Throughout all Italy the post-office is well managed, as indeed it has been ever since its original establishment in that country by the German emperor, from whom, it would seem, the post-masters received, at first, their remuneration. In Switzerland, each canton regulates its own post; but, by common agreement, something like uniformity has been

reached in its general management. In Spain and Portugal the post-office is presided over by a *correo mayor*, as director-general, but its operation is quite imperfect. In Turkey there is no post; but the Grand Seignior maintains mounted Tartars, whose business it is to forward as rapidly as possible his own and the dispatches of the public authorities. In Russia, whose post system is founded on that of north Germany, letters are forwarded with celerity and safety, at rates which are exceedingly moderate. A letter of an ounce weight is charged two kopeks (two-fifths of a cent) for every one hundred versts (66 miles) up to 1,500 versts; an additional kopek for any distance between 1,500 and 3,000 versts; and not over fifty kopeks (ten cents) for any distance over 3,000 versts. Extra posts are cheap and expeditious, a post-horse costing not more than two kopeks the verst; and a journey of 4,580 versts, which consumes eight weeks in making it, costing only about \$220, the expenses of living included. The postal revenue of Russia is estimated at about \$800,000 per annum.

In England, the post-office was not established till the year 1649. It was then founded by Mr. Edward Prideaux, Attorney-General for the Commonwealth, who arranged for the weekly conveyance of letters to and from all parts of the kingdom. Postmasters were, it is true, in the employ of the government before this period; and Charles I. had erected (1635) a letter office for England and Scotland, extending, however, to only a few of the principal roads, the post-masters on which transported letters at the rate of 2½d. per mile for each horse. This establishment did not succeed, but entailed an expense on the government, which just before Mr. Prideaux's plan was put into operation, amounted to £7,000 a year. Under the new order of things, the post-office yielded the Attorney-General such handsome profits, that it could not be leased for £10,000. In 1657 the post-office was established nearly on its present footing, and rates of postage were fixed which continued to the time of Queen Anne, when (Act 9, Anne) modifications were introduced, which have remained in force, in substance, up to the reign of the present sovereign, under whom (2 and 3 Vict. chap. 52) occurred the reduction of postage to the simple and cheap rates which now prevail. Previous to this reduction, the average rate of postage amounted to 7d. or 7½d. per letter, the charge on each varying with the distance. These prices yielded the government a nett revenue, in 1838, of £1,676,522, or about \$8,000,000. The new rates commenced in 1840, according to which all inland letters, without regard to distance, provided that they be paid on being posted or sent off, are, if they weigh no more than $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce, charged 1d.; 1 oz. 2d.; 2 oz. 4d., and so on, 2d. being added for every additional ounce up to 16 oz., beyond which weight no packets, with certain exceptions, whether subject to postage or not, can be received. Letters not pre-paid, are charged *double* these rates. The franking privilege is abolished; but addresses to the Queen are not chargeable with postage, nor petitions for either House addressed to parliamentary members, provided they are sent open at the sides, and do not weigh more than 32 ounces. Newspapers pub-

lished in the kingdom are not charged for transportation, as the government has already received its pay in the shape of a stamp duty of one penny on each paper; foreign newspapers are charged at rates varying from 1d. to 4d. In France, newspapers are charged 4 centimes (four-fifths of a cent) postage on a small sheet, which must be pre-paid. In Germany, the rate is one-quarter that of letters, according to weight.—For the year ending Jan. 5, 1839, the gross revenue of the British post-office was £2,390,763; the expenditure, £756,999: leaving a net revenue of £1,633,764. In 1850, ten years after the reduction of the penny rate, the gross revenue was £2,165,349; the expenditure, £1,324,562, leaving a net revenue of £840,787. During 1847 the postage paid by the government amounted to £163,855.

All the business of the English post-office is done in the name of the Postmaster-General, who is also a member of the cabinet, and has a seat in the House of Peers. His salary is £2,500 a year. His chief assistant is a secretary, with a salary of £2,000. There are several other officers who rank above the ordinary postmasters; the most important of whom is the solicitor of the department, whose pay is to be £1,500 per annum. The highest salary received by a postmaster in England is £1,000, (\$4,840,) which is given in Liverpool; the lowest is £30, (\$145.20,) a year. The pay of the clerks ranges from £80 to £500 per annum.

Every provision is made in England for the safe and speedy transmission of the mails. The railway companies are bound to take them at such hours and such speed as the Postmaster-General may require. The prices paid to the railway companies for this service vary from 1d. to 2s. 9d. the mile; one penny the mile according to the mode of reckoning adopted, being equal to \$14.72 a mile per annum, daily service; and 2s. 9d., being equal to \$451.93 a mile, daily service. The latter enormous price is paid in cases where the mail forms almost the only article of transport, on account of the time at which the train is made to perform its journey. The expenses of the mails conveyed on coaches are included in two items; the first, the price of building and keeping coaches in repair, which, at the maximum, is \$17.84 per mile, a year, daily service, at the minimum, \$9.89 per mile; the second, the price for horsing and conveying the mails, which varies from 0d. to 6d. per single mile. Any driver, horse, or coach, can be dismissed from the service by the Postmaster-General.—The annual cost of mail transport in England averages thirteen cents a mile, daily service.

Special provision is made for the payment of small sums of money, not exceeding £5, through the agency of the post-office. The money being deposited at one office, an order for the amount, deducting the discount, will be given on any other office in the kingdom. The charge is 3d. for orders of £3 and less; 6d. for sums over that amount within the specified limits. In 1847, the transactions of this character amounted to £14,115,153; and at present 300 clerks are employed in attending to the business in the principal office in London; a branch of which exists in every important post-office in Great

Britain. On the continent of Europe, money is insured in transitu in the mails, at rates stipulated by each government.

The transport of letters from one part of the city to another forms in London, as in Paris, no inconsiderable business. In the former city, there are employed 1,367 letter-carriers, who receive pay varying from 15s. to 30s. a week. In 1847, more than thirty-three millions of letters, it is estimated, exclusive of those of the general post, were delivered in London, on each of which the same postage was paid as is charged on a letter traversing the kingdom from one end to the other. These city letters are delivered ten times a day; in Paris, seven times.

The dead-letter office of England is an object of no little interest. In 1850, about two million letters were returned as dead, no owners having been discovered: in these there was found, when opened, property to the amount of nearly \$2,500,000, some of them having actually been posted without any direction. A single letter, on being opened in this way, not long since, was found to contain bank notes to the value of \$7,500. The dead-letters, after examination, are sold, Mr. Bowen thinks, for waste paper; instead of being burned, as is done in the office at Washington.*

Certain features common to the post system of Great Britain and the continent, but not to this country, deserve here a brief enumeration. They are: (a.) The appointment of a fiscal officer, not subordinate to the head of the department, to keep a check on his accounts; (b.) the accompaniment of the mails by armed guards; (c.) the registration of letters for their safe transmission, on the payment of a fixed fee; (d.) the delivery of letters by the carriers, and a prompt return, if letters are not inquired for, to the dead-letter office, unless marked "*posta restante*," or to that effect; (e.) the limitation of letters by weight, in France and Germany, not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce; (f.) the conveyance of money by mail, under special regulations; and other peculiarities not important to mention.

In America, the history of the post-office dates as far back as 1677, at which time an office was established in Boston, under John Howard, by the colonial court. In 1683, another was created in Philadelphia, by the order of William Penn. A scheme for establishing a post-office for the whole country, was carried, in 1700, into suc-

* Some very curious articles are discovered inclosed within the letters opened at this dead-letter office. Mr. Bowen relates the following:—" Packages, not exceeding in weight sixteen ounces, are permitted to be sent by the British mail; and many curious packages in consequence pass through the London post-office. Game of various kinds, plum-pudding, bits of wedding-cake, lobsters, and, strangest of all, live mice and pet canary birds have thus been forwarded, and safely delivered. In one case, a lot of leeches were sent in bladders, several of which burst, and the water having wet the letters, many of the poor creatures were found crawling over the correspondence of the nation. In another instance, a jar of strawberries was dispatched through the mail, but being smashed in the bag, completely destroyed a packet full of valuable lace belonging to the late Queen Adelaide. A mercantile agent going his round through the country, soliciting orders, found he had forgot his pistol. He wrote to his wife for it, and she sent it by return of mail, labeled and loaded to the mouth with powder, ball and slugs. A roast duck, a box of spiders, and a live snake, were also among the things forwarded in this way. Most curious of all, however, was a bank-note for £50, without an envelope, the two ends being merely wafered together, and the address written on the back."

cessful operation, by Col. John Hamilton, of New-Jersey ; but this was superseded, in 1710, by the act of parliament "for establishing a general post-office for all her Majesty's dominions." Chief letter-offices were to be kept in New-York, and other convenient places in each colony. The name of Franklin is intimately associated with the early history of the American post-office. He was chosen postmaster in 1737, and, in 1753, was appointed one of the two deputy-postmasters-general of North America. At the latter date, the length of the post-roads in the thirteen colonies was 1,532 miles, North Carolina having the most, and New-Hampshire the least. In 1774, Franklin was dismissed from his office, only to be elected next year Postmaster-General by the Continental Congress. In 1790, after the post-office had fallen, by the express terms of the constitution, under the exclusive control of the general government, there existed in the Union only 75 post-offices, and only 1,875 miles length of post routes. To perform "a complete tour" between Philadelphia to Pittsburgh occupied twenty days ; and the annual cost of the whole service was \$22,702. There are now in the United States nearly 20,000 post-offices, 196,200 miles of post roads, and 53,272,252 miles of annual inland mail transportation. Great Britain had, in 1847, 4,785 post-offices ; France, 3,582. The number of letters circulated in our mail during that year was 60 millions ; while France had 115, and Great Britain the still higher number of 300 millions.

THE UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE.—At the head of the post-office department stands the Postmaster-General, who is at present N. R. Hall, of New-York. He has three principal assistants, each of whom preside over a particular division, or bureau, of the general post-office. These divisions are the contract office, the appointment office, and the finance and dead-letter office ; to which are to be added the inspection office, presided over by the chief clerk of the post-office department and the auditor's office, presided over by the auditor. Under each of these presiding officers are a number of clerks, amounting in all to about one hundred and fifty.

The general post-office building, one of the most beautiful edifices in Washington, occupies a whole square, reaches three stories in height, and contains about one hundred apartments. Completed under Amos Kendall, it was first occupied in 1836. The ground-floor of the building is occupied mainly by the auditor's clerks, the topographers, and the dead-letter office ; the second floor by the officers and clerks of the post-office proper. The apartments of the Postmaster-General, who is also a cabinet minister, are situated in the main building, and are elegantly furnished. Here he receives visits of business and of ceremony. The rooms of his assistants, and those of the chief clerk and of the auditor, are contiguous to those of the Postmaster-General. The wings of the second story are occupied by the clerks of the contract, inspection, and appointment offices, among whom are found a few belonging to the auditor's office. The third story is appropriated to clerks of the last-mentioned office, to whom are added a few of the contract office ; and contains, besides, the book-keeper's office, with its twenty-five, or more, clerks.

The Postmaster-General.—The Postmaster-General is appointed by the President, and has the general superintendence and management of the entire post-office department of the United States. Through him the establishment is controlled and regulated by Congress; and by him all postmasters are appointed whose income is not above \$1,000 per annum. So varied and numerous are the duties of this officer, that only a small portion of them can be, and are in fact, performed by him in person: by far the greater part of them are, of course, attended to by his assistants and their clerks; among whom, especially since 1836, the strictest order and discipline prevail. All business is prepared by the clerks, and is then submitted by them to the Postmaster-General himself, or one of his assistants; who thereupon enters his *order*, after which the papers which have been prepared in accordance with such order, receive his signature. It is the duty of this officer to submit yearly to Congress an estimate of the amount of money which will be required for the department during the ensuing fiscal year, (commencing with July,) and also to present an account of the expenditures which have actually been made for the department from the time of the last annual estimate. His most important and most difficult duty is the regulation and supervision of the expenses of the department, and the general management of its monetary affairs. It is his business, too, to pay over, or to have paid, all the revenue of the department into the treasury of the United States, on the books of which it is entered to the *credit* of the post-office, as an offset to the *debit* created by the annual appropriation. Besides performing these duties, the Postmaster-General must decide upon the official forms of all the papers to be prepared by his more than 30,000 subordinates; must direct in what manner accounts are to be kept and rendered; and, in short, must exercise a general supervision over all the business, often complicated and involved, of the entire post-office department.

Bureaux of the General Post Office.—The bureaux or offices into which the general post-office is divided for the sake of facilitating its business, have already been mentioned. Of these, the first named, or *contract* office, has assigned to it, as its proper duty, the arrangement of the mail service, the making of mail contracts, the location of distributing offices, the supervision of the post roads, etc. The *appointment* office has exclusive direction of matters relating to the establishment and discontinuance of post-offices, changes of sites and names, appointments and removals of postmasters, and the giving of instructions to these last named functionaries. The miscellaneous affairs of the department, also, are properly under the management of this bureau. The *finance* office has the supervision and management of all the financial business which is not attended to by the auditor. Its head, the third assistant postmaster-general, has charge also of the dead-letter office, of the issuing of stamps for the pre-payment of postages, and of the accounts connected with their issue. The *inspection* office examines the registers rendered by postmasters of the time of the arrival and departure of the mails; inquires into all delinquencies of mail contractors, postmasters, etc., and all depreda-

in 1836. The duties of the superintending officer are multifarious. He is "a comptroller, a commissioner of revenue, an auditor-general, a registrar, and a solicitor; nay, everything in relation to the fiscal affairs of the department, except what appertains to the Postmaster-General and his assistants, and the treasurer. In short, his office is an 'imperium in imperio,' and though comparatively simple in its organization, is multitudinous in its details." Besides the auditor, there is connected with the general post-office a *treasurer*, an officer created in 1836, who receives and has charge of all moneys collected by the Postmaster-General. The *dead-letter office*, a branch of the inspection office, though not under the control of its head, occupies four rooms, and has thirteen clerks in its service. Every letter which comes to this office is, after a stated interval, opened by its clerks; and those that contain money or valuable property are read, and every effort made to discover the owners. All the other dead-letters are cast into a heap, without any examination of their contents, and consumed by fire. Letters containing money are not found so frequently as in the dead-letter office of England. The whole amount received in this way in 1850 was \$2,000. The chief cause of the accumulation of these dead-letters is misdirection. The number which is emptied annually into the vaults of the post-office at Washington is immense. It amounts, on an average, to 24,000 bushels, or about 20,000,000 of letters per annum. The postages on most of these are unpaid; it is estimated, however, that the proportion of unpaid will hereafter be much less, under the operation of the new postage law, which went into effect last July.

Postmasters, their Duties, etc.—Every postmaster must be an actual resident of the place in which the office he superintends is established; and he must be a citizen of the United States. He cannot enter upon his duties until he has taken oath and given satisfactory sureties for the proper performance of his official functions. His duties must be attended to by himself *personally*, or by the aid of a *sworn* assistant, or assistants if necessary. No other person but himself and his qualified assistants can have access to the letters and papers of the office, or interfere in any way with the mail. The mail may, indeed, be opened within view of other persons, but not within their reach. The postmaster is required to keep his office open daily during the usual business hours of the place; but on Sunday he need keep it open only an hour, but more if it be his pleasure; and, furthermore, he cannot resign his office and leave off the performance of his duties at his option, but must, even after resignation, superintend the office affairs until a properly qualified successor relieves him of his charge. Postmasters are required to make *quarterly returns* of the details of the business of their respective offices, and forward them to the department. These returns are examined by the auditor, and their errors, if containing any, are carefully corrected. A failure to send their returns within the specified time is followed by a fine. Besides making up and forwarding the quarterly returns in question, every postmaster must keep in his office a *general account* for the service of the department, subject to the inspection of the

Postmaster-General, or any agent of the department, a copy of which is to be furnished to the auditor whenever he may require one. This general account affords the means of comparison and adjustment, if a difference arises between the accounts of any postmaster and those of the auditor.

The payment of the services of postmasters is fixed by law on any amount of letter postage, (which in this case includes all pre-paid postage upon transient papers, etc.,) received by them, not exceeding \$100 in any one year, they are allowed 40 per cent.; on any sum between \$100 and \$400, $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.; any between \$400 and \$2,400, 30 per cent.; any over \$2,400, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Besides this, they are entitled to 7 per cent. on the amount of letters and packets received for distribution, but this only holds good of offices specified by the Postmaster-General; two cents on every free letter not addressed to postmasters, (unless other commissions amount to \$500 in the same quarter,) and 50 per cent. on all sums arising from postage on newspapers, magazines, etc. Charges for incidental expenses, moreover, are, in certain cases, allowed to be made against the department. For any deficiency arising in any post-office, after these commissions and allowances are made, the postmaster has no claim against the United States. If any balance is left, these deductions being made, it is to be acknowledged by him in his quarterly return. The payment of such balance, when called for, by draft or otherwise, must be made in specie bearing the stamp of the United States; any deficiency in the weight of which, as also any loss of post-office money or property by fire, robbery or theft, must be made up by the postmaster. A refusal to pay over balances to any officer of the department, is considered *prima facie* evidence of embezzlement on the part of a postmaster; which crime, if proved, as also any unlawful detaining of a letter or packet in his office, renders him subject to heavy legal penalties.—According to the recent report of the Postmaster-General, there were appointed during the fiscal year ending the 30th June, 1851, 5,339 postmasters, of whom 1,698 were appointed on the establishment of new post-offices. The entire number of post-offices now in operation is 19,796; nearly 1,700 having been established, and 256 having been discontinued, during the year. In the same report is expressed the conviction that the commissions allowed to postmasters will be found too moderate for the labor acquired by the new postage law. Of the post-offices now existing, 668 are in Maine; in New-Hampshire, 353; Vermont, 382; Massachusetts, 585; Rhode Island, 74; Connecticut, 339; New-York, 2,319; Delaware, 60; New-Jersey, 394; Pennsylvania, 1,790; Maryland, and District of Columbia, 337; Virginia, 1,296; North Carolina, 785; South Carolina, 484; Georgia, 658; Florida, 105; Alabama, 580; Mississippi, 553; Louisiana, 218; Arkansas, 328; Texas, 310; Tennessee, 760; Kentucky, 669; Ohio, 1,640; Michigan, 544; Indiana, 896; Illinois, 1,026; Missouri, 592; Wisconsin, 477; Iowa, 294; California, 34; Utah, 1; New-Mexico, 2; Nebraska, 2; Minnesota, 16; Oregon, 31. Of the postmasters' offices committed upon the mail. The auditor's office was established

superintending these, 36 receive a salary of \$2,000; 174 from \$1,000 to \$2,000; 347 from \$500 to \$1,000; 208 from \$400 to \$500; 381 from \$300 to \$400; 697 from \$200 to \$300; 2,022 from \$100 to \$200; 3,279 from \$50 to \$100; 4,086 from \$25 to \$50; and 8,369 a salary under \$25 per annum.

Transportation of the Mail.—The United States is divided into five contract sections, and the contract year commences on the first of July, and includes four civil or solar years. These contracts for transporting the mail are let, according to the act of 1845, "to the lowest bidder tendering sufficient guarantees for faithful performance, without other reference to the mode of such transportation than may be necessary to provide for the due celerity, certainty and security of such transportation." Some of the leading, and to the general observer, most interesting features of the mail contract, are the following: (a.) Only seven minutes at the most are allowed for opening and closing the mails; (b.) the mail is to be conveyed in preference to passengers, even, if necessary, to their exclusion; (c.) post-office blanks, mail-bags and special agents are to be conveyed without extra charge; (d.) mail agents are to be conveyed without charge on rail-road and steamboat lines, when the size of the mail or other reasons require it; (e.) forfeitures of pay, wholly or partial, according to a fixed scale, are to take place when trips are not performed, and fines are imposed for arrivals behind the time. For every failure to arrive within the contract time a specified excuse must be given, and a register of such failures and the alleged excuses must be kept by the postmaster at whose office they occur. A contractor is bound to supply all offices within eighty rods of his route, even though they be established after the date of his contract, without additional pay; and he is required in all cases to carry the entire mail, any leaving behind of the mail bags subjecting him to a fine, to be deducted, as are all the fines he may incur, from his contract pay. Contractors on special routes, if their route yield the sum specified, receive that sum, if not, they must bear the loss; if it yield more, they only receive the stipulated compensation. Other rules relative to the transport of the mail, not specially relating to contractors, worthy of particular mention, are the following: (a.) The mail cannot be borne upon a road which has not been declared a post-road, except in certain well understood cases; (b.) a member of Congress can have no interest in any mail contract; (c.) the mail can be carried only by free white persons, a fine of \$20 being imposed on the contractor for every violation of the regulation; (d.) the master of every ship arriving from any port in the United States at another where there is a post-office, must deliver to the postmaster all letters in his charge, before he is allowed to break bulk or make entry; (e.) no letters or packets can be carried over any post-route outside of the mail, excepting private messengers, and by those who receive no compensation; (f.) no postmaster, or his assistant or clerk, can be a contractor, or be interested in a contract for carrying the mails; (g.) the Postmaster-General is empowered to make special arrangements with the owners of steamboats and rail-roads for transporting

the mails, without reference to the ordinary mode of making the mail contracts; and, for extraordinary expenses when required, he may grant the most liberal terms; (*h.*) a mail carrier losing, destroying, or deserting his mail, is liable to heavy penalties; and any person robbing him is punishable, for the first offence, with five years' imprisonment, and for the second, with death, which latter penalty is also inflicted for the first offence if the carrier be wounded or killed; (*i.*) postmasters, drivers of mail-coaches, and mail carriers, are exempt from militia and jury duty.

The subjoined information respecting the extent and expense of the mail contracts for the year ending with the close of June, taken from the report of the Postmaster-General, as it appeared in the National Intelligencer of December 3d, 1851, will no doubt be very acceptable in the present connection. Six thousand one hundred and seventy mail routes were in operation in the United States, forming an aggregate length of 189,290 miles, and involving an annual cost for the transportation of mails of \$3,421,754. The total annual transportation amounts to 53,272,252 miles, of which 8,568,707 are performed upon rail-roads, at an average cost of about eleven cents five mills per mile; 5,454,982 miles in steamboats, at a cost of about eight cents three mills per mile; 19,726,588 miles in coaches, at about five cents three mills per mile; and 19,521,975 miles in modes not specified, at about four cents eight mills per mile. As compared with the previous year, this statement exhibits an increase of 13,354 miles in the length of inland mail routes, and of \$547,110 in the annual cost of transportation; but the comparison is irrespective of the routes in California and Oregon. In the former state, the annual transportation amounts to 537,476 miles, and the annual cost to \$130,270; in the latter, to 66,960 miles, at an annual cost of \$40,441. There are six foreign mail routes, three of which are under contract with the post-office department, at a cost of about \$2 09 $\frac{1}{16}$ per mile; and three under contract with the Navy Department, at a cost of about \$2 42 $\frac{6}{16}$ per mile.

Distribution.—In order to insure certainty, regularity, and dispatch, in sending packets from one remote point to another, offices have been established, which, besides the usual duties, perform the work of distribution. Much attention has been bestowed upon this subject, from time to time, by the different officials connected with the department. Systematic distribution was first attempted by the elder Granger; (1810;) each postmaster, previous to his time, being left to exercise his own judgment as to the best and most expeditious route for forwarding the matter of his mails. Modifications were subsequently made, at different times, in this scheme, which resulted finally in the arrangement now existing. It is unnecessary to give here the details of the plan of distribution. It is sufficient to say that, with all its modifications, it is yet quite imperfect, and frequently halts in its operation. Notwithstanding all the care taken to prevent mistakes, they are constantly occurring. Three hundred letters, for example, are received daily at the New-York office, which are improperly sent there for distribution; thus causing, as in many other

places, a *double* distribution, each of which would cost the general post-office a commission of 7 per cent., if provision were not made to prevent it in New-York. The commissions on letters erroneously sent for distribution to the New-York office, would, if charged, amount in one year to \$85,328; as it is, they are only saved by the employment of extra clerks, with much confusion and delay, and with much expense for clerk hire, to the department. Mr. Bowen computes the amount of money paid at present by the department for double distribution, at \$300,000 per annum; which, he says, is less than one half what was formerly paid on the same account. A more simple scheme than that now in operation, and one that will save all these extra expenses, is that of single distribution, as proposed by this gentleman. It is not important that his plan should be exhibited here at full length; it is enough to say, that it is based on the present distribution scheme, that it is easily understood, and not difficult to be put into execution. It is hoped that the department will give the plan a fair consideration; for to such it is fully entitled, as having been matured by one whose experience in the practical working of the post-office system of this country gives weight to his opinions, and who deserves our thanks for the labor and expense which he has undergone in the preparation, and complete explanation, of the arrangement he proposes.

Rates of Internal Postage.—The new postage law went into operation on the 1st of July, 1851. According to this law, the postage on a letter not weighing over *half an ounce*, sent any distance in the United States, not exceeding 3,000 miles, is *three cents*, if paid in advance; and *five cents*, not-prepaid. For any distance over 3,000 miles, the rates are doubled. If sent wholly, or in part by sea, or to or from a country with which the United States has no postal treaty, the rates are *ten cents* for any distance under 2,500 miles, and *twenty cents* for any additional distance. A letter weighing over half an ounce, no matter how little, is charged double postage; and so every additional half ounce, or fraction thereof, is charged three cents, or five cents additional, according as the letter is or is not pre-paid. Drop letters, or letters put in the post-office for delivery in the same place, are charged *one cent* each, whether pre-paid or not. In all cases, the distance which a letter is conveyed is estimated by that of the post-road along which it is transmitted. Ship, steamboat, and way letters appear to be chargeable as before the passage of the law—*six cents* each, if delivered at the office of original reception, and *two cents* additional if forwarded to another office for delivery.

The postage on newspapers, pamphlets, etc., is determined by a complicated calculation. Its manner of adjustment is very unsatisfactory to the public, and in many cases the rate itself is decidedly higher (sometimes twice as high) than under the former regulations. It is not likely that these rates will continue long in force. They are best exhibited in the tabular form in which they were originally published on the 14th of June last, by the Postmaster-General,

Rates, per quarter, when sent from the office of publication to bona fide Subscribers.

From and after the 30th of June, 1851, for each newspaper not exceeding three ounces in weight, the annexed rates per quarter are to be paid quarterly in advance. These rates only apply where the paper is sent from the office of publication to actual and bona fide subscribers.

	Weekly.	Tri-weekly.	Semi-weekly.	Weekly.	Semi-monthly.	Monthly.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
For any distance not exceeding 50 miles.....	25	15	10	5	2½	1½
Over 50 and not exceeding 300 "	50	30	20	10	5	2½
" 300 " 1,000 "	75	45	30	15	7½	3½
" 1,000 " 2,000 "	100	60	40	20	10	5
" 2,000 " 4,000 "	125	75	50	25	12½	6½
" 4,000.....	150	90	60	30	15	7½

DIRECTIONS.

1st. *Weekly Papers*, only when sent as above stated, are to be delivered free in the county where they are published, and this although conveyed in the mail over 50 miles.

2d. Newspapers containing not over 300 square inches, are to be charged one quarter the above rates.

3d. Publishers of newspapers are allowed exchange free of postage, one copy of each number only, and this privilege extends to newspapers published in Canada.

4th. The weight of newspapers must be taken or determined when they are in a dry state.

5th. Postmasters are not entitled to receive newspapers free of postage under their franking privilege.

6th. Payment in advance does not entitle the party paying to any deduction from the above rates.

Rates on Transient Newspapers and other Mailable Printed Matter.

NOTE.—For each additional ounce or fractional part of an ounce, beyond the ten ounces embraced in this table, an additional rate must be charged.

	Weighting one or or more.									
	Over 1 and not over 5.	Over 5 and not over 10.	Over 10 and not over 15.	Over 15 and not over 20.	Over 20 and not over 25.	Over 25 and not over 30.	Over 30 and not over 35.	Over 35 and not over 40.	Over 40 and not over 45.	Over 45 and not over 50.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
When sent not over 500 miles.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Over 500 and not over 1,500 "	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20
" 1,500 " 2,500 "	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
" 2,500 " 3,500 "	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40
" 3,500.....	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50

DIRECTIONS.

1st. On every transient newspaper, unsealed circular, handbill, engraving, pamphlet, periodical, magazine, book, and every other description of printed matter, the above rates must in all cases be pre-paid according to the weight.

2d. Whenever any printed matter on which the postage is required to be pre-paid, shall through the inattention of postmasters or otherwise be sent without pre-payment, the same shall be charged with double the above rates.

3d. Bound books and parcels of printed matter not weighing over 32 ounces, shall be deemed mailable matter.

Periodicals published at intervals not exceeding three months, and sent from the office of publication, to actual bona fide subscribers, are to be charged with one-half the rates mentioned in the last of the above tables, and pre-payment of a quarter postage thereon must in all cases be required. Periodicals published at intervals of more than three months are charged with the full rate, which must be pre-paid.

In case there is or in any newspaper, periodical, pamphlet, or other printed matter, or paper connected therewith, any manuscript of any kind by which information shall be asked for, or communicated in writing, or by marks or signs, the said newspaper, periodical, pamphlet, or other printed matter, becomes subject to letter postage; and it is the duty of the postmaster to remove the wrappers and envelopes from all printed matter and pamphlets not charged with letter postage, for the purpose of ascertaining whether there is upon or connected with it any such printed matter, or in such package any matter or thing which would authorize or require the charge of a higher rate of postage thereon.

Rates of Foreign Postage.—The rates of postage between the United States and Great Britain are determined by the postal treaty of May, 1849. Previous to this treaty, the British Government enjoyed a monopoly of the sea-postage between this country and Europe. Even letters conveyed across the sea in our own vessels could not be delivered or posted in Great Britain without the pre-payment to that country of the entire sea-postage. The postal treaty has totally changed this objectionable state of affairs; and the revenue derived from sea-letters, amounting annually to about \$1,000,000, instead of going wholly to one, is now divided between the two governments. The rates of postage, as established by the treaty, are as follows:

The entire postage between any office in the United States, (California and Oregon excepted,) and any other in Great Britain or Ireland, is *twenty-four cents*, for a letter not weighing more than half an ounce; *forty-eight* for one exceeding that weight; *ninety-six*, if the weight exceed an ounce, but not two ounces; the rate being doubled after the first ounce. The postage may be left unpaid; if paid, all that is due must be given at once, as fractional payments will be disregarded. Letters from or to Oregon or California are charged *five cents* more than the above mentioned rates. Of this postage on foreign letters, the British Government, if it conveys the letter in its own packet, retains all but *five cents*. If a letter be carried over the ocean in an American steamer, that government retains, on collecting the postage, only *three cents* out of the whole; the rest being credited, and ultimately paid, to the United States.

Newspapers for Great Britain and Ireland are charged *two cents* postage, which must be pre-paid in America; but newspapers coming thence are paid for, at the same rate, when delivered. On pamphlets, books, and periodicals, the postage is *two cents* each, when weighing not more than two ounces; and *one cent* for every additional ounce, pre-paid, if sent from here, but not otherwise.

Letters sent to other foreign countries, in or out of Europe, which have to pass in their transit through Great Britain, must, if they are to be transported in an English steamer, have the United States postage, and that only, pre-paid; if sent by an American vessel, they must have both the inland and ocean postage pre-paid. Letters sent from the United States, by one of our steamers, to any point on the continent of Europe where they touch, must be pre-paid, at the rate of twenty cents the half ounce. Newspapers, under the same circumstances, will pay two cents. The postage to Havana, in Cuba, recently twelve and a half cents per half ounce, is now ten cents pre-paid, if the letter be sent not over a distance of 2,000 miles; over 2,000 miles, the postage is ten cents the half ounce. The postage on letters sent to the British West Indies, which must be paid in advance, is the same as that charged upon letters forwarded to Cuba. The charge on newspapers is two cents. Letters sent to such of the West India Islands as are not British, are charged thirty-five cents the half ounce, for distances not over 2,500 miles, and forty-five cents for any distance over; to be pre-paid, as also letters coming thence.

Newspapers sent are charged four cents. The postage on letters sent to South America is, in general, fifty cents per half ounce, pre-paid; on newspapers, &c., eight cents per ounce. Letters sent into Canada, from any office in the United States, not over 3,000 miles from the Canada line, by the route traveled, are charged ten cents for the first half ounce, increasing proportionally for every fraction of a half ounce; over 3,000 miles, fifteen cents; pre-payment being optional.

Mailing of Newspapers.—Every facility for mailing and transmitting their newspapers, is granted by law and by usage to editors and publishers. If their mail is large, they are furnished with bags and allowed to make it up themselves, and transmit it without further examination; and yet, in case of miscarriage of papers, postmasters are held responsible, unless they can show that the fault lies with the publisher or the mail contractors. Packets of newspapers addressed to one office cannot be opened at another; and if, by accident, a packet should lose its wrapper, the postmaster discovering it is bound either to re-direct it, or to return it to the publisher. And no postmaster is allowed to lend, or to suffer to be read, in his office, any newspaper directed to another person; but to guard against fraud, he is not only permitted but required to take the wrappers off from papers which come to his office in envelopes,—these wrappers not being counted part of the newspapers, and not being subject to postage.

Collection of Postage, and Delivery of Letters.—Nothing but specie can be taken for postages; and postmasters are not authorized, in any case, to give credit. Postage on newspapers regularly subscribed for are to be paid quarterly in advance. Letters may be delivered only to the person addressed, or to one authorized to receive them, by order; which order, however, is sometimes implied. Letters delivered to the wrong person, and opened by him through mistake, must receive his endorsement to that effect, and be returned therewith to the post-office.

Letter Carriers and Mail Agents.—Postmasters may employ *letter-carriers*, who are qualified for their office, by giving to the United States approved bonds. Their compensation, in large cities, is *one cent* per letter; in small cities, *two cents*, as formerly; on each paper they are entitled to $\frac{1}{2}$ cent. It is the duty of the mail carrier to receive and convey all letters to the post-office which are handed to him more than a mile from the office. Beside these carriers, there are employed (by the Postmaster-General) on certain railroad and steam-boat routes, *mail agents and mail messengers*, who are qualified by taking the required oaths, and who, like mail-carriers, are exempt from militia and jury duty.

Postage Stamps and Advertising Letters.—*Postage stamps*, of the denomination of *one, three, and twelve cents*, may be purchased to any amount, at important offices; and these answer all the purposes of money, and are, in some respects, more convenient for the pre-payment of postage. Such a stamp is canceled by the postmaster in whose office the letter bearing it may have been deposited. Letters remaining uncalled for in any office are to be *advertised*, every week;

or less frequently, according to a fixed rule, in the paper of the place in which the office is situated which has the largest circulation, at the rate of *one cent* per letter. If there be no paper in the town, or if the list be refused, the postmaster must post up, in a conspicuous place, a manuscript list of the letters in question.

The Franking Privilege.—Certain citizens and officers of government are entitled to freedom of postage on their letters and packets; among these are Mrs. Garrison, Mrs. Taylor, any person who has been president of the United States, the vice-president, members of Congress, and delegates from territories, the governors of states, the three assistant postmasters-general, and certain postmasters,—each, however, under given restrictions. Besides these, publishers of newspapers, periodicals, etc., not exceeding 16oz. in weight, may exchange with each other, postage free. The franking privilege is purely personal: it travels with its possessor, and can be exercised only in one place at the same time. Franks cannot be left behind on envelopes for letters to be written by another person; yet this rule is perpetually violated, without reflection, by members of Congress. Postmasters, whose yearly receipts do not exceed \$200, can frank letters to publishers of newspapers, as their *agent*, for the agency being taken for granted by the appearance of the frank. The free matter sent to and from Washington, during the last two years, would have realized \$1,795,920, at the present rates, and \$4,240,820 at the rates in force a year ago; and this not counting newspapers, etc. This abuse of the privilege requires legislative action.

Lost Letters, etc.—Money, or any valuable property, transmitted by the mail, is at the risk of the owner. If a letter is lost, the department will make every effort to recover it, and to punish any one who has been the cause of the loss. To assist it in its efforts to do so, the loser should forward to Washington all the particulars which he can collect respecting the mailing of the letter, etc. Should not the letter or money be recovered, after all, there is no remedy; the courts have frequently decided against the department, and there is only in certain cases a remedy against the postmaster. The postmaster is liable for the loss, if it can be proved that it was sustained in consequence of his negligence.

Expenses and Receipts of the Department.—The entire expenditure of the last year, as given in the Postmaster-General's late report, (Dec., 1851,) amounted to \$6,278,401; but this includes a payment made to Great Britain, and a payment made under an award. The ordinary expenditure was \$6,024,586. The receipts during the same period amounted to \$6,786,493; of which \$5,369,242 were derived from letter (including foreign) postage and stamps sold, and \$1,035,130 from postage on newspapers, periodicals, etc. Allowance must be made here for the same payable to Britain, and for that of additional appropriations. These allowances made, the ordinary revenues are \$6,551,977, being an increase of \$999,006 over those of the preceding year, and a balance of \$527,411 over the proper expenditures of the present year. The estimated expenses for the current year are

\$7,123,448. The reduced rates on printed matter, and the extension of the exchange privilege to publishers, will alone, it is thought, reduce the revenue for the current year \$500,000. If all the free matter carried in the mail were charged with postage, it would, at the present rates, add to the revenue between \$1,000,000 and \$2,000,000 per annum.

In his late report, Mr. Hall recommends that the rates on letters remain as they now are, but that not more than two, or at most three rates of inland postage should be fixed on newspapers sent to subscribers, and that the postage on transient newspapers and other printed matter should be more nearly assimilated to the ordinary newspaper rates. "It is difficult," he says, and the remark is worthy of serious consideration, "to assign a sufficient reason for charging upon such periodicals as the reviews, the numerous magazines, and theological, medical and law periodicals, more than three times the amount of postage charged for the same distance upon an equal weight of newspapers. Such periodicals are less ephemeral than the ordinary newspapers, and certainly not less beneficial in their influence." It is hoped that Congress will take this matter in hand during the present session; and reduce to something like regularity and fairness our present anomalous system of newspaper and periodical postage.

APPENDIX I.—Statement of the number of Post-Offices, the length of Mail Routes, and extent of Mail Transportation in the United States, and of the Amount of Receipts and Expenditures of the Post-Office Department, under appropriate heads, in each year, from 1840 to 1851, inclusive.

REFERENCES TO APPENDIX I.

(a) Including \$210,205 23 received for letter postages of the Government. (b) \$163,505 48 received for do. do. (c) Including \$35,611 23 of British postages. (d) Including \$147,063 82 of British postages. (e) Including \$53,626 44 of British postages. (f) Including \$22,089 81 received for newspaper and pamphlet postages of the Government. (g) Including \$20,942 59 received for ditto. (h) Including \$482,657 drawn from the Treasury under the act approved 9th September, 1841. (i) Including \$150,000, drawn from the Treasury under the 21st section of the act of 3d March, 1845. (j) Including \$600,000, drawn from the Treasury under section 21 of the act of March 3d, 1845. (k) Including \$125,000, drawn from the Treasury under the 2d section of the act of the 19th June, 1846. (l) Including \$233,235 40 paid for British postages.

J. MARRON, Third Assistant Postmaster-General.

Post-Office Department, November 28, 1851.

Years,	MILES OF TRANSPORTATION.				RECEIPTS.	
	Number of Post-Offices,	Length of Post-Roads.	Rail-Road and Steamboat.	Other modes of conveyance.	Letter postage.	Newspapers & pamphlets.
1840	13468	155739	3889053	32481723	4003776 07	535229 61
1841	13778	155026	3946450	31050075	3812738 61	566245 46
1842	13733	149738	4424262	30411729	3953315 20	573225 25
1843	13814	142295	5692409	29560403	3738307 54	543277 39
1844	14103	144687	5747355	29662269	3676161 53	549743 83
1845	14183	143940	6484592	29149677	3660231 38	608765 22
1846	14601	149679	7781828	29616670	42881697 74	7658142 49
1847	15146	153818	8084922	30802977	53198957 43	643160 59
1848	16150	163208	8713200	32299379	3340304 10	767334 85
1849	16747	167703	8945153	33598916	43862762 62	819016 20
1850	18417	178672	10634574	35906849	4575663 86	919485 94
1851	19796	192026	13855209	38849069	5369942 76	1035130 89

Appendix I. continued.

Years.	RECEIPTS.			EXPENDITURES.			Total of expen-
	All other receipts.	Total of receipts.	Paid for trans- portation.	Compensation to Postmasters.	All other expenses.		
1840.	4516 24	4543521 93	3213042 61	1029447 90	475745 13	4718235 64	
1841.	28742 20	4407726 27	3034813 91	1021379 22	443334 48	4499527 61	
1842.	503966 65	5029504 65	4192196 06	1041535 15	441020 55	5674751 76	
1843.	14640 50	4296225 43	2982512 47	995005 57	397231 67	4374753 71	
1844.	11382 47	4237287 83	2912946 78	988230 20	395335 72	4296512 70	
1845.	170845 20	4439841 60	2898630 48	1033112 06	388989 45	4320731 99	
1846.	645249 74	4089089 97	2597454 66	1042079 74	444798 02	4048332 42	
1847.	171329 12	4013447 14	2474855 68	1060288 19	434591 25	3971275 12	
1848.	53438 90	4161077 85	2545232 12	1254345 65	527272 50	4326850 27	
1849.	3397 46	4705176 28	2577407 71	1320921 34	580720 08	4479049 13	
1850.	4835 06	5499984 86	2965786 36	1549376 19	697790 88	5212953 43	
1851.	6230 68	6410604 33	3538063 54	1781686 34	958651 80	6278401 68	

APPENDIX II.—The following table shows, very nearly, the number of Post-Offices in each State and Territory on the 30th day of June last, classified according to the compensation allowed to each Postmaster, for the last fiscal year:

STATES.	\$2,000.		\$1000 to \$2000.		\$500 to \$1,000.		\$400 to \$500.		\$300 to \$400.		\$200 to \$300.		\$100 to \$200.		\$50 to \$100.		\$25 to \$50.		Under \$25.		TOTAL.		
	1	—	1	—	6	—	13	—	5	—	21	—	9	—	62	—	146	—	171	—	234	—	668
Maine.....	1	—	1	—	6	—	13	—	5	—	21	—	9	—	62	—	146	—	171	—	234	—	668
New-Hampshire.....	5	—	5	—	1	—	12	—	16	—	55	—	95	—	72	—	94	—	355	—	355	—	
Vermont.....	3	—	10	—	5	—	7	—	27	—	77	—	704	—	87	—	69	—	382	—	382	—	
Massachusetts.....	6	—	14	—	30	—	23	—	44	—	60	—	137	—	137	—	93	—	41	—	585	—	
Rhode Island.....	4	—	3	—	1	—	—	—	9	—	17	—	15	—	22	—	10	—	74	—	74	—	
Connecticut.....	1	—	6	—	11	—	8	—	21	—	39	—	65	—	69	—	74	—	45	—	339	—	
New-York.....	5	—	31	—	56	—	34	—	64	—	118	—	367	—	327	—	537	—	560	—	2319	—	
Delaware.....	1	—	—	—	1	—	4	—	3	—	8	—	9	—	13	—	22	—	22	—	60	—	
New-Jersey.....	1	—	5	—	7	—	4	—	6	—	12	—	35	—	79	—	95	—	150	—	394	—	
Pennsylvania.....	3	—	13	—	30	—	19	—	24	—	66	—	163	—	303	—	418	—	751	—	1790	—	
Maryland and Dis. of Columbia.....	3	—	4	—	2	—	4	—	4	—	15	—	37	—	79	—	93	—	103	—	337	—	
Virginia.....	2	—	8	—	9	—	12	—	13	—	28	—	92	—	171	—	303	—	658	—	1296	—	
North Carolina.....	3	—	5	—	7	—	6	—	15	—	28	—	65	—	96	—	560	—	785	—		—	
South Carolina.....	1	—	2	—	9	—	2	—	5	—	13	—	18	—	31	—	118	—	285	—	484	—	
Georgia.....	8	—	7	—	6	—	13	—	17	—	57	—	88	—	153	—	308	—	658	—		—	
Florida.....	1	—	4	—	2	—	1	—	5	—	8	—	9	—	22	—	53	—	105	—		—	
Alabama.....	3	—	10	—	7	—	8	—	7	—	49	—	101	—	123	—	271	—	580	—		—	
Mississippi.....	5	—	6	—	4	—	9	—	17	—	46	—	74	—	90	—	302	—	553	—		—	
Louisiana.....	1	—	8	—	2	—	8	—	6	—	25	—	35	—	36	—	97	—	218	—		—	
Arkansas.....	1	—	1	—	4	—	3	—	6	—	12	—	37	—	53	—	211	—	328	—		—	
Texas.....	1	—	4	—	2	—	7	—	5	—	33	—	33	—	47	—	178	—	310	—		—	
Tennessee.....	2	—	9	—	11	—	4	—	5	—	16	—	43	—	82	—	127	—	469	—	760	—	
Kentucky.....	6	—	12	—	6	—	8	—	16	—	58	—	85	—	116	—	362	—	669	—		—	
Ohio.....	2	—	16	—	31	—	17	—	23	—	49	—	218	—	353	—	366	—	565	—	1640	—	
Michigan.....	3	—	14	—	3	—	11	—	13	—	48	—	69	—	112	—	272	—	544	—		—	
Indiana.....	8	—	10	—	6	—	12	—	28	—	58	—	135	—	200	—	439	—	896	—		—	
Illinois.....	1	—	7	—	15	—	7	—	21	—	45	—	84	—	145	—	903	—	498	—	1026	—	
Missouri.....	1	—	1	—	9	—	5	—	6	—	17	—	54	—	82	—	97	—	320	—	592	—	
Wisconsin.....	4	—	9	—	9	—	10	—	18	—	32	—	87	—	84	—	231	—	477	—		—	
Iowa.....	4	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	7	—	23	—	31	—	59	—	160	—	294	—		—	
California.....	5	—	4	—	—	—	1	—	2	—	—	—	7	—	5	—	4	—	6	—	34	—	
Utah.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	
New-Mexico.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2
Nebraska.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	2
Minnesota.....	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2	—	1	—	1	—	1	—	10	—	16
Oregon.....	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2	—	4	—	2	—	19	—	31	—	

36 179 347 208 381 697 2022 3279 4086 8369 10604

APPENDIX III.—Statement of the number of Post-Offices and length of Post-Roads in the United States, the annual amount paid for Mail Transportation, and of Receipts and Expenditures of the Post-Office Department at periods of five years, from 1790 to 1835, inclusive.

YEARS.	Number of Post Offices.	Length of Post Roads.	Paid for transportation.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1790	75	1,875	22,081 00	37,935 00	33,140 00
1795	453	13,207	75,359 00	160,620 00	117,893 00
1800	903	20,817	128,644 00	280,804 00	213,994 00
1805	1,558	31,076	239,635 00	421,373 00	377,367 00
1810	2,300	36,406	327,966 00	551,684 00	495,969 00
1815	3,000	43,748	487,779 00	1,043,065 00	748,121 00
1820	4,500	72,492	782,425 90	1,111,927 00	1,160,936 00
1825	5,677	94,052	785,646 00	1,306,525 00	1,229,043 00
1830	8,450	115,176	1,272,156 00	1,919,300 00	1,959,109 00
1835	10,770	112,774	1,533,222 00	3,152,376 00	2,585,108 00

J. MARION, *Third Assistant Postmaster-General.*
Post-Office Department, Nov. 28, 1851.

ART. III.—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

THE PARISH OF CATAHOULA—ITS EARLY SETTLEMENT, PRESENT CONDITION AND NATURAL RESOURCES—ANTIQUITIES—BOTANY, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, ETC., OF NORTHERN LOUISIANA.

We publish this interesting paper, by Dr. Kilpatrick, long as it is, entire, and will conclude the subject in our next. It will be remembered that Dr. K. contributed to our pages in July last an invaluable paper upon *Concordia*. The information embodied has far more than a local interest, and was collected in answer to a circular from the Bureau of Statistics of this state, of which the Editor of the Review has had the charge. If this bureau had done nothing else than elicit the valuable contributions which have appeared in our volumes upon

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.—In Dr. Kilpatrick's paper on Concordia, there occurred a few errors, which we now correct. De Bow's Review, vol. xi., page 42, for James Gillespie, read F. Gillespie; p. 43, Edward Sparrow is erroneously stated as a resident of Baton Rouge; it should be Concordia. Page 45, for *palamis occidental*, read *platanus*, etc. Page 52, Dr. Bradstreet, instead of Dr. Jackson, is said to have performed an operation; same page, note, for 18 feet, read 13 feet; p. 53, for Conger eel, read Proteus eel; p. 59, line 20, for \$5 to \$15, read \$2 to \$8; p. 62, note, 12th line, for \$10 to \$30, read \$6 to \$12. There was an error also in stating that the Bringier grant is still in dispute. The following other corrections have been pointed out.

"The earliest settlements made in the western border of the parish were in 1837-8, although previously, even during the early part of the century, there was a road leading through the country, communicating with Alexandria and Monroe, Washita Post: the Indians and Spanish traders from Red River, Texas, and Upper Washita, crossing the Black River at or near the mouth of Little River, where a ferry was kept by a man named Hebard.

"The first settlements in the western part of the parish were as early as 1802 and 1803, on the Tensas River. Several claims for lands in the parish, under Spanish Requests, were presented to the Commissioners to adjudicate upon land titles for the Western District of the Orleans Territory in 1811 and 1812, and there were several residents on

the parishes of Natchitoches, Avoyelles, Assumption, Baton Rouge, Concordia, Catahoula, Plaquemine, Jackson, Feliciana, Ouachita, New-Orleans, etc., it would have repaid the state for the whole expense it has incurred. The office is, however, in correspondence still, and does not despair of success in obtaining information from all the other parishes. Is it expecting too much from our fellow-citizens, that they will impart their aid? Can the office, with the small consideration received from the state, proceed without it? We desire to be informed upon all points, and will ourselves judge of their materiality. The legislature may be assured that within twelve months from this a volume of historical and statistical detail will be issued, embracing a condensation of the papers already published—a great deal of material we have culled from every source, and all that we shall succeed up to that time in obtaining. Our desire is, that the volume shall not appear until it is complete, and, if possible, illustrated with a new and accurate map of Louisiana. Such volumes have already been published in several of the states. Should there unfortunately occur any errors in the details, we rely that our friends will at once point them out. We have some interesting coterminous manuscripts regarding the Battle of New-Orleans; also many of the antiquities of the state, which, with any others that may be sent us, or old manuscripts, newspapers, etc., will be placed in the museum of the university.

The points to which our friends will address themselves in their contributions upon the parishes will be:

- I.—Settlement and history of parish. Indian remains.
- II.—Biography of remarkable men.
- III.—Topography, geology, natural history, etc.
- IV.—Agriculture, timber, roads, navigation, value of lands, levees and *crevasses*.
- V.—Disease and health—*meteorology*.
- VI.—Population—its growth, classes, size of towns, labor.
- VII.—Education—schools, proportion educated, expense; churches, &c.
- VIII.—Manufactures and arts of parish.
- IX.—Commercial statistics of parish.
- X.—General statistics—societies, pauperism, charities, crime, remarkable physical events, climate, &c.

The name of this parish is an Indian word of the Choctaw language, and should be spelled *Okkattahoula*, the meaning of which is *beautiful white water*. The name was originally applied to the lake of the same name, which was given to the district of country bordering upon it.

the Tensas River at that time. The high waters of 1813 and 1815, which entirely submerged all those lands, drove away the occupants, except at one point near the mouth of the Little Tensas, which has been continuously occupied for at least forty years. At this point, the principal road which crossed the swamp from Natchez to Harrisonburg, Alexandria, etc., struck the Tensas River. It was by this road the mail was carried until within a few years, and by which Toledo and those under him went to Texas.

"The other road which is spoken of by the writer in this No. of the Review, was used before 1800. In 1802, a grant was made by the Spanish governor to one Thomas Thompson, of a ferry from the tract of land he owned near the port of Concordia, (now Vidalia,) to Natchez, upon condition that he would open this road 40 feet wide to the Bayou *Cocodra*. A similar grant was made to Don Juan Hebrara, for a ferry across Black River, at the point where Trinity now stands, and in consideration he opened the road from his ferry to the Cocodra. Before this, the way was what in backwoods parlance is called a bridlepath. Most of these facts are developed by the evidence of Gen. Walker, our present governor, Mr. Francis Henderson, of Rapides, and others, in a suit decided not long since by the Supreme Court of the United States, of J. Davis vs. Parish of Concordia."

During the time of occupancy by the Spanish and French, this section of country was an integral part of the county of Rapide, and was not divided from it till 1808, at which time the parish of Catahoula embraced parts of Caldwell and Franklin parishes, and extended from the present southern limits of the parish up to the parish of Ouachita.

The parish now is bounded on the north by Franklin, Caldwell, and Jackson; east by Tensas River or parish; south by Avoyelles, Rapide, and Natchitoches; and west by Natchitoches. At the last session of the legislature an act was passed authorizing a further division and reduction of this parish, by cutting off a slip on the west to help in making a new parish. Catahoula now is so very large that the sheriff and other officers are necessitated to ride about 70 miles west from Harrisonburg in the discharge of their duties, while those citizens in the west are also subjected to great inconvenience in attending the District Court.

While the country was under the rule of the Spanish and French governments, a few hardy pioneers made their way here through many and great hardships and deprivations. The emigrants from Spain and France were not much inclined to husbandry and the arts of civilization, but engaged in hunting with the Indians, or trafficking in peltries. Many of them had traversed the country from the forts at different points, and become in some measure acquainted with the general face of the country and the principal geographical features. Amongst these were a few English and Americans from the southern Atlantic states and the western states, amongst whom I would take the liberty of naming a few.

Edward Weeks.....	1796	Nicholas Welch.....	1798
David Jones.....	1797	James Levins.....	1799
Nicholas Levins.....	1799	Matthew Stone.....	1802
William Brown.....	1798	Edward Lovelace.....	1802
Henry Holstein.....	1803	Richard Green.....	1802
John Holley.....	1804	Rezin Bowie.....	1802
Rhessa Bowie.....	1802	Elijah Ford.....	1802
Patton.....	1802	James White.....	1802
Don Juan Hebrard.....	1803	John Lovelace, Sen.....	1810
John Faulk.....	1806	John Galvin.....	1807
Andrew Cathey.....	1805	Joseph Barbee.....	1807
William Whatley.....	1797	Jacob Young.....	1810
Richard Earle.....	1797	Zacharias Taliaferro.....	1815

The list of names could be greatly extended, but it is not deemed important to do so, as many have died, leaving no families, or else moved away farther west, after a short sojourn here.

The most of those here named were hardy hunters, but also fond of agriculture and the pastoral life; and many of them secured large bodies of valuable land from the Spanish government, or from the United States, by pre-emption. On looking over the United States land papers, it has been found that, in the county of Rapide, there were 450 applications for grants and requests, which came before the United States Commissioners, at Opelousas, and the most of which were confirmed by them. But the most of these, settlers and claimers, were afraid of the swamp, and located their grants in the pine woods. They seemed not to be willing to trust the waters, which, probably, was well enough for them, as they were poor, and there were no levees then to protect them in the least from the Mississippi River. There had been an overflow in 1779, which was about 4 feet higher than the one of 1828; and another in 1796, which was only about six inches lower than 1828, so that really they had good reason to avoid the alluvial lands. The early settlers clustered around Catahoula

Lake and prairie, and along on the principal creeks, in the pine hills, where the soil laid well, and was productive.

The family of Lovelaces settled on the Sicily Island, in 1802, coming from Red River, a short distance below Alexandria, where they had been living several years, having come from South Carolina to Natchez, in 1776, lived there about eighteen years, and settled at what was afterwards known as Fort Adams, below Natchez, where they remained some four or five years, after which they removed, as above stated, to Red River.

Other settlements were made at Harrisonburg, and on Hemphill's Creek. Although this stream is thus named, Mr. Hemphill never lived on it, but was amongst the first to obtain a grant of land there.

In the year 1797, Mr. David Jones settled on Little River, above the Catahoula Lake, at the place now owned by Mr. Lacroix. Mr. Jones was an enterprising man, who had traversed the country, and, with a judgment and forecast truly remarkable, selected that spot for the purpose of raising stock, and keeping a ferry and public house.

At that time there was no road through the country, and persons going that way were guided by Indians, or hunstmen, equally wild and roaming. Jones went to work, and blazed out the route across from Alexandria to his ferry, thence down to Catahoula Prairie, thence through the Elm Bayou swamp, along the northern bank of Little River to the Ferry of Don Juan (or Caddy) Hebrard De Baillion.

This road is still used in great part to the present day. About the same time, the road was blazed out to the present town of Harrisonburg. The old Natchez trace from Caddy Hebrard's down through Holloway's Prairie, and on to Alexandria, was blazed out about the same time. In the same way the trace was marked out from Harrisonburg, about 1802-3, along the swamp, following its meanderings to Lovelace's Lake, or Lake Loohah, crossing it, and thence to Tensas, at Robert Noble's Ferry, and on to Vidalia. The road across the Island of Sicily to Rodney was traced out about 1810. These dates are not given as being *perfectly* accurate, as there are no records to refer to; and, in the early settlement of all our western country, the pioneers were in the habit of being guided by the Indians in their migrations from place to place.

The early settlers were accustomed to go across to Natchez and Alexandria, taking pack-horses, and bringing home their yearly supplies. They would unite in small parties, and those who had slaves would take one or two along to attend to the pack-horses.

In those days, when a stranger wanted to go through the country from Natchez or Vidalia, to Alexandria, it was necessary to get a *passport* from Commandante Joseph Vidal, who also sent a guard along with him to Alcalde Don Juan Hebrard's, on Black River, who inspected the passport, and furnished another guard to go on with the stranger to Alcalde, Nicholas Levins', in Catahoula Prairie, who also *vised* the passport, and furnished another guard on to Alexandria, where Liszard, the commandante, also inspected the passport, and either signed it or furnished another one, if the traveller wished to go further, or return thence again to Natchez.

Their expenses then were very small, and their wants but few. A few pecks of salt, a few pounds of coffee and sugar, and some few cooking utensils, were the most indispensable. In dress, the good wives and daughters fabricated out of cotton and wool, with the wheel and loom, all that was needed in the family. Calico and checks, and the Northern domestics, were quite rare, and only worn on extraordinary occasions; and one fine dress lasted many, many years.

The men spent much of their time in the woods hunting, and wild game supplied the daily food the year round. The meat of bears, deer,

turkeys, and all other game, was then to be had in the greatest abundance ; the fishes in the streams were superabundant, and of the most delicious quality. Bears' oil supplied the place of lard and butter, and, besides, was used to lubricate, anoint, and fix up any and everything ; while the skins were appropriated to many domestic uses. The men adapted their dress to their pursuits and manner of life, wearing what is called the hunting shirt, leggings and moccasins, with a coarse hat, or rather a cap, made of the skin of some animal. Many of them engaged in rafting timber and boards to Natchez, or along the Mississippi River, or on to New-Orleans. If a trip was undertaken to the city, several of them would club together what stock of peltries and other saleable articles they possessed, purchase, or rather build a flat boat, and so float down to New Orleans, dispose of their "plunder," purchase their supplies, and work their way back, or else sell boat and all for cash, and walk back home. Here is a genuine "bill of expenses" of a trip of this sort, in 1809 :—

EXPENSES TO NEW-ORLEANS AND BACK.

1809	1809	
July 20, To 1 gallon whiskey.....	2	[Carried forward]..... 44 56 <i>4</i>
28, 1 gallon do.	1	
30, 1 melon	0 12 <i>4</i>	Aug. 17 cash paid for crossing lake*..... 4
Aug. 2, melons	0 50	" dinner and melon.... 0 62 <i>4</i>
4 bread, coffee, and sugar 0 36 <i>4</i>		18 supper 0 37 <i>4</i>
" a hand from Red River 5		25 cash paid John Crow 3
" bread..... 0 6 <i>4</i>		" ferrage to Natchez.. 0 25
5 unloading the flat. 2		
" wharfage..... 6		
6 bread 0 6 <i>4</i>		
" cash paid Stephen 4		
" 1 lb. coffee..... 0 50		\$52 81 <i>4</i>
7 2 lbs. sugar..... 0 25		26 crossing the Mississippi 0 37 <i>4</i>
" cash paid Stephen.... 2		27 crossing the Tensas... 0 25
8 cash paid Stephen.... 1 50		
9 tobacco 0 31 <i>4</i>		
" cash paid Rogers.... 0 50		0 62 <i>4</i>
10 cash paid Stephen ... 10		\$53 43 <i>4</i>
11 cash paid Rogers.... 0 25		the price of the flat... 90
" cartage..... 0 50		
" penknife 2 50		\$143 43 <i>4</i>
" pair shoes..... 2		
" washing clothes	0 25	
" coffee and bread..... 0 62 <i>4</i>		
12 washing clothes	0 18 <i>4</i>	The proportion of each in the price of the flat, and the expenses to Orleans and back again, is thus :—
13 cartage	0 12 <i>4</i>	
" rum	0 12 <i>4</i>	
15 sugar and coffee..... 0 50		John Lovelace, senr... 35 86
" dried beef..... 0 37 <i>4</i>		Edward Lovelace.... 35 86
" biscuit..... 0 43 <i>4</i>		Samuel Lightner.... 35 86
" brandy..... 0 6 <i>4</i>		William H. Lovelace 35 86
" cash paid for Stephen 0 25		
	\$44 56 <i>4</i>	\$143 44

There were settlements made on Black River as early as 1802, by John Henry, — Patton, James White, — Prater, — Wyche, John Faulk, and a few others. A few of the settlers had slaves, but generally not more than half a dozen. Mr. Rezin Bowie, who settled on the Bushby, had about 20, which was more than any other one man. The Lovelaces settled on S. I., with seven adult negroes. Soon after these,

* Lake Pontchartrain.

others came in, who brought still more slaves with them. Among these, were Moses King, and Z. Kirkland.

The first store in the parish was owned by Oliver J. Morgan and John Henry, in 1807, and was situated in Catahoula Prairie. They brought up their merchandise in keel boats. As a matter of curiosity, and to let us see how the prices of many articles have been reduced in our day, the following "accounts," from the books of this store, are here copied, together with others from the books of Lovelace, in 1808-9:

CATAHOULA, March 26th, 1807.

JAMES WHITE, Dr. to Sundries.

32½ lbs. coffee, a 5s	33 06	2 fish hooks, a 1s.....	0 25
102 lbs. sugar, a 20c.....	20 37	2 doz. needles.....	0 25
1 demijohn, gin.....	10 00	1 paper pins.....	0 25
4 lbs. powder.....	4 00	1 caret of tobacco, [4 lbs.].....	1 00
7 yards linen, a \$2	14 00	2 tumblers	0 75
21 lbs. shot, a 3s	7 87	2 bottles wine.....	2 50
13 lbs. lead, a 2s	3 25	3 yds. calico	3 00
1½ yards linen.....	1 50	2 lbs. shingling nails.....	1 00
6 lbs. chocolate, a 5s	3 75	1 lb. flooring do	0 37½
3 bags cotton seed, a \$1	3 00	10 yds. checks.....	10 00
4 yards bagging, a 4s	2 00	1 pr. 3½ pt. blankets.....	12 00
6 yards Osnaburgh linen, a 3s	2 25	5 lbs. sugar, \$1 25; 5 lbs. coffee, \$3 12½.....	4 37½
3½ yards blue guinea, a 5s	2 11	14 yds. yellow flannel	2 18½
3 pocket-handkerchiefs, a 4s	1 50	5 yds. calico	6 25
6 caps, a 2s	1 50	1 log chain	15 37½
3 do. a 1s	0 37½	3 tumblers	1 12½
1 coffee pot, a 10s.....	1 25	1 lb. pepper, \$1; ½ lb. tea, \$2.....	3 00
1 bushel salt.....	2 50	On the books of G. W. Lovelace, he charges himself with 4 brls. of salt, \$12; freights on same, \$2 50—.....	22 00
1 ounce of thread.....	0 37	Freight from New-Orleans, on 1 brl. sugar, 2 bags coffee, 1 10 gal. keg, and 4 bla. salt,—total.....	17 50
2 blankets, a \$5	10 00	4 pr. negro shoes, [Natchez,].....	8 50
15½ black velvet, Andrew Cathy's account.....	38 75		
7 yds. velvet cord.....	10 50		
1½ yd. waistcoating.....	1 25		
½ yd. cotton.....	1 12½		
1 yd. cambric.....	1 50		
1 pr. shoes	3 00		

Having thus briefly noticed the early settlements, the next subject will be the

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE PARISH.—The entire area of the parish, according to the calculation of F. G. Smith, the United States Marshal for this district, is 1664 square miles, while according to others it is nearly 2,000. It is naturally divided into alluvial bottom land and pine hill land, the latter embracing two-thirds of the territory, while the remaining third is alluvial; of this latter, one-fifth is fit for cultivation, and is highly productive, while the remainder is not tillable, and probably will not be for many years to come, if ever. The forest growths, flowers, and so forth of the two divisions are quite different in many respects, as will be more definitely stated in another place.

The base of the range of hills runs southwest from the town of Harrisonburg on the Ouachita River, and continues in this line, bordering the northwest side of Catahoula Lake to Red River below Alexandria. The overflow of the swamp next to the hills is on an average of ten feet deep. The land in cultivation in the swamp is only along the banks of rivers, baous, and lakes, as is well known throughout the state.

About three miles above the town of Harrisonburg the hills seem to have crossed the river in a spur or point, and about 10,000 acres are cutoff on

the east side of the Ouachita River. At the foot of these hills, on the south and east sides, a plateau or table land, some four or five feet above the late high water marks, extend several miles to the bayou Loah and lake of the same name; while on the north side, the Deer Creek, emptying into the Ouachita at the base of the hills, cuts off all connection with other high lands, thus forming what is called *Sicily Island*. On the table lands the magnolia, poplar, lynn, holly, and wild peach grow. The gap where the Ouachita cuts through is probably a mile wide, and the river being 230 yards wide, the rest of the space is alluvial, intersected with bayous and lakes next to the hills on the west. In low water, the river here does not permit the passage of steamboats, and its bottom is broken white sand-stone. On a high point of alluvion in the gap is a large square mound about 40 feet high. The table lands of this island are of a dark loam, and very fertile indeed. Fields which were in cultivation in 1803, and which have not been renovated by any process of manuring, produce still good crops of corn and cotton, and seem to be well adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane. On digging wells here the following is the soil and substrata: dark soil 12 to 18 inches; yellow clay 6 feet; red clay 8 to 10 feet; dark clay, sometimes called pipe clay, 8 to 10 feet; coarse dark sand 3 to 4 feet; fair colored or white sand, with white or yellow gravel or pebbles intermixed, 2 to 3 feet, out of which gushes delicious, pure water.

INDIAN REMAINS.—To speak truly in this matter, agreeably to the sentiments of the writer, there are *no remains* of the races of Indians known to us. Although Dr. Monette and A. J. Pickett, in their admirable works, contend that many of the mounds now seen amongst us were built in modern times, still it seems that they assume more than can be proved. On nearly all of the mounds about here, there were very large trees growing when first discovered, and those which are yet in the woods all have large trees on them. As regards the Natchez Indians throwing up the large mounds at the confluence of Little and Black rivers, it may well be objected to. That they stopped there, occupied the position and fortified it, is also matter of doubt. There are many persons here in the parish who contend that the Natchez Indians occupied a position on Sicily Island. There seems to be conflicting testimony in regard to this amongst historians. Mr. Gayarre says, the French officer had no artillery, but made an artificial cannon out of a log, and mounted it on wheels, so as to deter the Indians. Mr. Pickett, in his History of Alabama, says, that *artillery was used* on the occasion, and very effectually too. It is well known that there never have been any remains or relics of any military engagement discovered here at these mounds at Trinity by any of the old settlers, whilst hundreds of relics of many different kinds have been found on Sicily Island, on lands formerly owned by Moses King, but now belonging to Dr. H. J. Peck and Dr. Nuttal. When the Lovelaces settled there in 1802, there was a regular entrenchment and breastwork found on the place above named, on the border of King's Lake, at the foot of the bluffs. The breastwork was about four feet high at that time, but from various causes it has been entirely obliterated. The writer was on the spot in November, 1851, and picked up the main-spring of a gun lock, some musket flints, about a dozen ounce musket balls, all more or less flattened and battered; a short piece of iron rod, a copper arrow point, having a socket so as to fit on the end of a large arrow, together with several of the common flint arrow points. In addition to this, there have been some musket barrels plowed up out of the ground there, also several pistol barrels; and Mrs. P. found the barrel of a pistol sticking in the bank on the border of this lake, one day while fishing. I picked up also a part of a bomb-shell, while Dr. Peck, several years ago, found some cannon balls, about eight pounds, one of which his brother, in Port Gib-

son, has hanging on his yard gate. Pigs of lead two feet long have been found there in digging a ditch, and several stout pieces of bar iron, which Edward Lovelace made use of in the building of his first gin. The musket balls and bits of lead were so numerous and plentiful there in early times, that the settlers resorted there to procure lead instead of buying it, as it then cost two bits a pound. The balls are all coated with a thick oxide or crust, and when melted, this is left hollow like the shell of an egg. A spherical bell was found, having a loop for a handle, and a rattle inside, the wall being split at several places, similar to a child's rattle; it was a good bell, and rung very clear. Some gentleman passing there, who had a taste for such curiosities, took it with him. A part of a steel corn mill was also found, and part of a chain with the hook on it. The Indians there in 1802-3, said there were two cannons sunk in the same lake; the then present generation of Indians said they were told by their fathers that the whites and Indians had a battle there more than a hundred years before.

But one of the most interesting circumstances or proofs concerning this battle is this: Mr. Andrew Cathay, who settled there contemporaneously with the Lovelaces, cut down a cypress tree immediately by the battle ground, to make him a "*dug-out*," and while engaged in this work he found a musket ball, such as those found there on the ground, embedded deeply in the cypress tree. Now, if it could be ascertained what was the size and approximate age of that tree, and at what depth in it that ball was found, the question might be settled as to when and by whom that battle was fought. Mr. Cathay is dead, but I have reason to believe that his widow is still living in Franklin Parish, who may probably be able to throw some light on this matter.

While dwelling on this subject, I would here beg leave to introduce the following letter of a very well informed gentleman, who has devoted much time to the examination of this subject. He thinks these relics mark the spot of one of De Soto's encampments, and probably his last one. But we will let Mr. Guice speak for himself.

DE SOTO IN LOUISIANA.

"TEXAS PARISH, LA., October 16, 1851.

"DR. A. R. KILPATRICK:

"MY DEAR SIR,—As respects the book of De Soto's Travels, to which you refer in your letter, it cannot be expected that my recollections should be very accurate after the lapse of twenty-seven years; but, such as they are, I am willing to give them to you in as concise and accurate a manner as it is in my power. The title of the book and the name of the author have entirely escaped my memory, but I am inclined to think that the author was a priest, belonging to the expedition, who acted as father confessor to that renowned adventurer. If that work was before Dr. Monette, when he wrote his history of the discovery and settlement of the West and South-west, his understanding of its contents were very different from my own respecting the route that De Soto traveled through the western country, from the bay of Espiritu Santo in Florida. After landing, and having the great battle with the natives, in which he suffered so much, according to my recollection, he marched a north-west course; and, consequently, must have entered the state of Mississippi in the present county of Green. Still following on that course, he passed through Lawrence and Copiah, Hinds, and Yazoo, to the Yazoo River, where he encamped for the winter. The book says that the natives in this part of the country were very warlike, and hostile to the Spaniards, and that here they built a large fortification to protect them from the natives, (which the author calls the Yazoo.) He gives a particular description of the river, which description answers well to that of the Yazoo. This, together with the tribe of Indians on its banks, of a name so nearly resembling the name of that river, fixed it in my mind that the river could be no other than the Yazoo. Another circumstance related in the book, proves this fact beyond con-

troversy. The author says they desired to continue their course to the north-west, but in the spring before they commenced their march, the banks of the river were inundated, and entirely stopped their progress in that direction, and compelled them to shape their course to the north-east. At this place I would remark that there is an old fortification on the Yazoo, built in a square form, and inclosing near forty acres of land—an embankment thrown up several feet in height, and the appearance of a ditch on the outside. The fortification has two gates on opposite sides. It may be said that De Soto and his adventurers would not have inclosed so large a space for the accommodation of his army; but when we consider that his force at this time consisted of near 1,400 men, and as wood was very essential for their comfort during the winter, that they may have inclosed so much that they could have that necessary article within their wall, so as not to expose themselves to the ever-watchful savages in procuring it. This fortification is so unlike all the ancient remains of the aborigines of this country, that we are forced intuitively to ascribe it to a people of a higher grade of civilization than ever, before the time of De Soto, inhabited these regions. Whether there have been any relics of civilization discovered at this fortification, I have not been informed. The writer of the book relates, that on their departure from their winter quarters, that they soon encountered steep and precipitous hills, covered with thick forest and undergrowth, which very much retarded their progress; and as their horses that remained were quite weak, they were compelled to leave two pieces of artillery that they had brought thus far. He says they buried them in a deep ravine between two precipitous hills. After severe toil, they attained a more level and beautiful country, of which the writer gives a very glowing description. During this summer's march, they had several severe conflicts with the natives, which distressed them very much, and somewhat impeded their march. They at length arrived at a very beautiful river, of which the author gives a very beautiful and glowing description. The description of this river, and the course they had marched, would fix it to be no other than the Tennessee. After passing this river they turned their course westward, and late in the fall arrived on the banks of another beautiful river, where they built a fort, and remained for the winter. Here I would remark, that this river must have been the Tennessee, from the course they traveled, and the description of the river. Here they found the natives more friendly. The next season they continued their course south-west, nearly with the course of this river, and soon discovered the great Mississippi, at or near the Chickasaw Bluffs. After descending this stream a small distance, they crossed it, and again bent their course to the north-west, and must have wintered somewhere in the lower part of Missouri, or the upper part of Arkansas. During this summer's march, they had much trouble with Indians and much sickness, which thinned their numbers very much. During this winter their sufferings were very great, as they were often short of provisions. Their sufferings and privations continued to thin their numbers; at length, in the spring, they commenced their march in a south-east direction, crossed White and Arkansas rivers, and continuing the same course, arrived on Sicily Island in the parish of Oucattahola, and there encamped for the winter. Their numbers, by sickness and war, were now reduced to about 400 men. De Soto himself was in a very precarious state of health on their arrival at this encampment, and expired a short time after, and the command devolved on Mosoco. I will here give my reasons for placing this encampment on Sicily Island. The writer observes, that they designed continuing their march by land in the spring; but, before they were ready to depart, they found that they were surrounded by water on every side, which determined them to build brigantines, to effect their passage from their encampment. This circumstance is a very strong argument in itself, that this island was their location, but I have very strong circumstantial evidence to strengthen this position. An old friend of mine, formerly of Franklin county, Mississippi, now deceased, named Moses King, was one of the first settlers of Sicily Island; he informed me that, on the plantation which he settled in that island, he found numbers of musket balls, old hatchets in an advanced state of decay, and old musket barrels in the same situation. Mr. King was a man on whose statements the utmost reliance could be placed, and it is therefore evident that there had at some remote time been an encampment of civilized men at this place; and that it could not have been any other than De

Soto, is very conclusive, from the circumstance of the place of encampment being entirely surrounded with water, as narrated in the journal of the writer above named. Respecting the burial of De Soto, I am inclined to believe it took place by his direction, in the Father of Waters, and the place I believe to be the mouth of Red River, as that was the first place the brigantines built on Sicily Island reached. There, I believe, his remains were deposited, which circumstance has led to the mistake that he died at that place, and that the brigantines were there built that conveyed the remnant of these adventurers to a Spanish settlement.

As I have never resided in the parish of Catahoula, I cannot be cognizant of much that can be interesting to the work you are now engaged in. At the time the American government took place in Louisiana, there were few or no American inhabitants in that parish; the settlers at that time were exclusively French. They were scattered in several settlements, the largest of which was on Catahoula prairie and lakes. Those inhabitants that then resided there, I think, have very much diminished in numbers. As late as 1802, there was but one road through the swamp from Concordia to Catahoula; about that time a road was laid off running from the Mississippi at Rodney, to Sicily Island. About the year 1800, the road to Alexandria was laid off, leaving the Mississippi near W. P. Smiths' plantation, and crossing Black River about three miles below the present town of Trinity, and passing through the parish by the way of Holloways. I know not much of the present resources, health and general statistics of Catahoula; there are others you can ascertain this from, better qualified than myself to give you the requisite information. If this statement will be any advantage to your notes, it is at your service.

Your friend,

JESSE GUICE."

The gentleman mentioned, Moses King, lived on Sicily Island only a few years, when he returned to Franklin county, Miss., where probably his descendants are yet residing, who may be able to give some further information. The book which Mr. G. quotes, he says, belonged in 1824 to Dr. Penquite, who removed to Madison county, Miss., where he died many years ago, leaving a widow and some children, who may yet have the book in possession. It was a very old book then, printed about the time of the Revolution, or before.

That there was a battle fought here there is no doubt, but at what time it is difficult to ascertain positively. The tradition of the cannons being sunk in the lake would militate against the belief of its being an encampment of De Soto's, because he had only one piece, which it is generally believed he left in the present limits of Florida; or if he carried them further, the author quoted by Mr. Guice says, he left them probably in the present limits of Tennessee. Indian traditions are generally good authority on matters of locality, as has lately been evinced by the recent discovery of some artillery sunk in the Tombigbee River by the French in one of their unfortunate campaigns early in 1700. The Indians had frequently pointed out the place where the cannons were sunk, but most of people disbelieved them.

But to continue on the subject of mounds and Indian remains. There are very many interesting specimens of this kind of work in the parish. Several large ones on Sicily Island, the most noted of which are on Lake Looah, on lands of John Lovelace, which inclose an irregular square. Many specimens of pottery, and human bones of a large size, have been frequently dug up here, and are yet to be found with little labor. All who have seen these skeletons, say they are larger than bones of the Saxon race; the big bones are from two to four inches longer than those of our tallest citizens, while the inferior maxillary, or lower jaw, can easily embrace a large man's face like a visor.

There are two mounds on Bayou Looah, near the ferry. There are

several considerable mounds in the corporate limits of Harrisonburg, and others below on the lands of Ed. Doty, extending down to the Bayou Bushby, all of which are united by an embankment extending from mound to mound, running from the base of the pine hills in the village down to the Bushby. This embankment or levee is broken in some places, apparently by water. The mounds in Harrisonburg are arranged in an elliptical form. One of them near Mr. Doty's residence is quite large, and instead of being circular, is oblong, and near the summit there is a step or apron, above which rises the summit, forming a perfect cone.

All along the alluvion, from Harrisonburg to Catahoula Prairie, great quantities of broken pottery and arrow points can be found, and in fact, throughout the whole alluvion down Black River, which indicates a very dense population at some remote period. Mounds are found around Catahoula Lake, and on French Fork of Little River, all along down on the south side of Little River to its mouth, where those remarkable ones are seen which strike every beholder with astonishment. There are three large ones standing near together, in the point between Little and Black rivers, and the principal one was said by Dunbar and Hunter, in 1804, to be 80 feet high, but now it is not much over 50 feet. One of the large ones has been used by the citizens as a burial ground for twelve years; but since the property has changed hands, this practice has been discontinued. A large embankment, semicircular in shape, embraces these mounds, containing probably an area of sixty acres. There are twelve mounds in the field; that is, nine others besides these three large ones. About two miles below these mounds, on the bank of Black River, there is another embankment, similar to the one above mentioned, embracing probably an area of eight hundred acres. The diameter of the semicircle is nearly a mile and a half on the river bank. These embankments are cut through in various places and in several points by a large bayou, presenting the appearance of having been crevasses, or forced through by high water when the embankments were freshly thrown up. Pottery and flint are found abundantly on the whole line whenever turned up by the plough, and large oak trees are now growing on them. Some of the growth immediately below the residence of Major Liddell, on Black River, is small, indicating the location of a clearing or settlement of no very ancient date.

The following tradition is here given, with the hope that it may aid in the investigation of Indian history. Dr. John McBride Thompson came to this parish in 1819, and was fond of investigating these subjects: so in 1831, while on a visit to Georgia, he had opportunities of conversing with Creek Indians and half breeds, and in speaking about these very mounds at the mouth of Little River, he received the following statement from a very intelligent half breed Creek Indian: "The large mound at the mouth of Little River was called the GREAT FIRE, and was the central place of worship, as it was at the remarkable point where two rivers crossed, or where one river ran across another. The Creek Indians formerly occupied this country in great numbers, but having become involved in a war, or rather being invaded by a very powerful tribe from the sea coast, they were overpowered and forced to leave their homes and favorite place of worship, and retreat towards the east. Many of them betook themselves to boats, and retreated down the river into the Mississippi, through into Lake Ponchartrain, and scattered abroad over the country now known as Alabama and Georgia, and where they were found by the first white people." Those who are better acquainted with the Creeks, or rather Muscogees, may be able to give a more detailed account of this tradition. But the remarkable natural phenomenon here mentioned, of two rivers crossing, is enough to entitle the tradition to attention, as it is a fact, that

for many months in the year the waters of the Tensus River run across Black River into Little River, and this last named river runs up stream. But is the reader satisfied from this that this tribe of Indians *built* these mounds?

In the early settlement of the country, there were many Indians of the Coshattes, Pascagoulas, and Choctaws, which latter were the most numerous, whose language was the most in use, and who gave names to the streams. There were a few villages on Hemphill's Creek, the Bushby and Funna Looah. While speaking of these things, it may be as well to mention what has been ascertained of the Indian names.

Ok-katta-hoola ; Beautiful white water. The whites have abbreviated this word to its present manner of spelling.

Oua-chitta.—This is the French spelling of an Indian word, and the *Oua* is thus put, because the French language has no letter W. In old books and maps the word Wisconsin is spelt *Ouis-consan*, and as this style has been changed, why not change the *Oua-chitta*?

The meaning of this word is somewhat uncertain, as different persons translate it differently. One says it signifies *Big Cat River*; another, *Big Cow River*; another says, *Ach* or *Atch-Chitta*. *Big River*, from the fact that it is the largest of the three, which here unite. The word *Ouah*, or *Ouach*, by some is translated *cow* or *buffalo*, while all unite upon the meaning of *Chittas*, or *Chitto*, as meaning *large* or *big*. Inquiries were propounded to the Indians by some of the early settlers, but they could not fully satisfy them on the subject. The above is all that could be gathered on this name.

Bushby, cut off ; Bogue Bushby, cut-off Bayou. Bush-po means knife. The Bushby is a cut-off from the Washitta to Little River.

Funna Looah, or Looach, means burnt squirrel. I know this is mostly spelt *Funny Louis*; but as it is calculated to mislead, I propose the other spelling, as it is more consistent with the guttural intonation of their language.

Lake Looach, mostly spelt Louis, means Squirrel Lake, so also Bayou Looach, owing to the great numbers of those animals. This stream and lake are on Sicily Island.

Dugdemona, or Dugdimona, meaning not ascertained.

Castor is a French word, meaning *beaver*.

Beau Coup, also French, a name given to a part of the Dugdemona swamp, and means a *great deal, much, or a large quantity*; the swamp is very extensive. The different creeks in the pine hills took names from those who settled on them, or from some caprice. Some of them change names with the settlers.

While speaking of the natural divisions of the parish, some mention was made of the amount of pine hill land. This is like all other pine woods country, and, therefore, needs no particular description. The first place where the pine hills come to the Washitta River is at Harrisonburg. The various creeks which run through the hills, find their outlets into the Washitta, the Catahoula Lake, and Little River above it. The writer has seen many such sections of country, but candor compels him to say, none have greater or better facilities for moving machinery by water-power than here on these streams. There is one place in particular on Hemphill's Creek, just below the old road which crosses about three miles from the lake, where the natural advantages for a large mill, or factory, are truly remarkable. At this point, the bed of the creek is on an immense layer of sandstone, which also shows itself on the eastern bank of the creek; while, on the west side, there is an isolated hill making down, with an inclination, to within less than one hundred feet of the east bank; while around this hill, on the west, there is a natural waste way for the escape

of extra water. The letter V gives the best illustration of the place. Here there is the greatest abundance of good sandstone, for building purposes of any kind; the bottom lands of the creek, where the black walnut, cherry, magnolia, &c., indicate a strong soil, are suitable for fields and gardens, while the inexhaustible pine forests furnish building materials and fuel for ages to come; at the same time this, with the most excellent spring water, are sufficient guaranties for health. It is a matter of surprise that this situation has not been improved long ago. There are plenty of white persons near by, who could be soon engaged as operatives. This site is on land belonging to Thomas Holley. It is only a little over two miles to a bay which makes into the Lake Catahoula, and is navigable for six months of the year for large steam-boats.

The Geology next presents itself for consideration, and there is no doubt but, if the state should have her territory thoroughly examined by well-informed geologists, that they would find more rare specimens in this parish than any other.

Sandstone, of a very strong, fine, and durable texture, is met with in the vicinity of Harrisonburg; and it is well known that Mr. Forshey here procured the stone which was forwarded on to the Washington Monument, although it is known that there are better specimens to be found. Out-croppings of sandstone are seen at a great many different points in the parish, and is almost in constant view on the road from Harrisonburg to Catahoula Prairie, and on the bluff of the prairie. Immense beds of it are also seen on the hills of Sicily Island, and on all the creeks in the pine hills. In many places it is found in a beautiful lamellated form, broken into regular lines, like square masonry, which can be easily taken up and used in making chimneys. Much of the sandstone has silex in it.

Red sandstone, beautifully veined, has been found on the border of a small lake, on the south side of Little River, between Big and Clear Creeks. This is of a fine grain, and firm texture, which would bear a polish.

Alumine, vulgarly called *chalk*, both red and white, is found in immense hills in the upper edge of the parish, and also in the parish of Caldwell. This has been mistaken by most persons for chalk, and the place is called the "Chalk-Hills."

Red Ochre and *Yellow Ochre*, are found in considerable quantities on Salem Creek, which is a tributary of the Bushby.

Iron Ore is met with in almost all parts of the Pine-Hills, but especially in the greatest abundance in the western portion, embraced within the limits of the new parish which is to be laid off. The most noted places are near the Dugdemonia and Castor; also, five or six miles below the fork of Castor bayou, twenty-five miles west of Harrisonburg, between Funna Looah and Chickasaw bayou, next to Little River.

Mica is found on digging wells, especially on the bluff lands of Sicily Island, at the depth of 25 and 30 feet.

Lead Ore, of a very pure quality, has been found in small parcels on Sugar Creek, near the "Chalk-Hills."

Stone Coal is found in considerable quantities near the fork of Dugdemonia and Castor. This was partially quarried by Dennis Carlin, some years ago, but the specimens experimented with by him were not very good, probably from his not digging deep enough. There is no doubt but that an abundance of coal could be found, if proper means were used. Some of this was taken to Alexandria, and used there in a forge, and burned readily.

Salt Springs, of the very best quality, are here, in the western part of the parish, on the west side of Castor Bayou, four miles from the fork. The water boils up in the springs, and where it has spread out over the ground, the whole surface is covered with crystals. Mr. Fowler settled

here as early as 1804, and has made salt in a poor way up to this time. The early settlers were constantly in the habit of resorting here to make their yearly supplies of salt, when it was selling for \$2 50 cents per bushel. Some years ago, a well was dug here in a low place, or glade, and the water gushed up over the mouth, and is running that way yet. Another place, called the "Cedar Licks," is found on the west side of Dugdemonia, two miles off from the stream: the water comes from springs, and is very highly charged with salt. Mr. Nelder visited this place a few years ago, and said it was as good a place to make salt as he could desire. He is well acquainted with the business, having been engaged at it in the West Indies.

This is twenty miles from Black Lake, the nearest navigable water, and is fifty miles north-west of Harrisonburg, and the same distance from Alexandria.

Lime land, or extensive beds of marine shells. This is found on Mr. Wagner's place. The whole soil is composed nearly entirely of very small marine shells, in a state of decay. The land is very dark, and is singularly limited and circumscribed, as it were, by a line; and the soil just beyond is of a yellowish color. The land looks like what is commonly called prairie land, and probably is a continuation of what is seen in Choctaw and Octibeha counties, in Mississippi, and other places in Alabama.

Earthquake.—There is a singular undulatory appearance observed on Funna Looah, on the place of Mr. Umphrey. It looks like the ridges of a potato patch, lying parallel, with regular spaces of ten feet, the ridges being from eighteen to twenty-four inches high. This covers a great many acres of ground. Whether it is the result of an earthquake, or the action of water, it is hard to decide.

Chalybeate springs are found in many places, the most noted of which are near the Castor Bayou, but are so situated that the high water, every spring, covers them. There are others on Devil's Creek, at different points along Hemphill's Creek, in the pine hills on Sicily Island, and at the head of Lake Looah, at Mr. Clarke's.

Sulphur springs of many varieties, and in great abundance, throughout the pine-hill country. The most noted are what are called the "Buffalo," or White Sulphur Springs, on the road from Harrisonburg to Alexandria, where there is a post-office, two boarding-houses, and many other buildings. These springs were discovered by some hunters, and were well known some time before they were resorted to as a watering-place. The first building was made there in 1846; and since that time they have been much resorted to for many diseases, and hundreds of invalids can testify to their sanative properties.

In order that the learned, and those who feel an interest in such studies, may have a correct idea of the mineralogy of Catahoula Parish, the following summary is given. There is a slight notice of Dr. Holliday's splendid collection in De Bow's Review, for April, 1851, page 478, where the different specimens are mentioned. The state could not appropriate a moiety of its funds better than in purchasing such collections as this; and if proper encouragement were given, no doubt the collection could be greatly increased.

MINERALOGY OF NORTHERN LOUISIANA, ETC.

Dr. J. Holliday has made a large collection of the minerals in the region surrounding Harrisonburg. The collection is now in New-Orleans in charge of J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., editor of the "Southern Review," which gives a good exposition of the mineralogy of this section of the state. Before his collection was formed, a very limited knowledge was obtained thereof. For nine years past he

has been industriously engaged in procuring every specimen he could, being anxious to elucidate, as far as possible, the minerals of the state: he has so far succeeded as to form a nucleus, which every addition thereto may increase its interest, and add new light to the mineralogy of Louisiana. As yet there has been no discovery made of the precious ores, though, from very credible information, silver has been found in the bed of a creek, six miles from Harrisonburg. Stone coal has been found abundant in a certain locality.

Dr. Holliday chiefly predicates interest in his collection, from their applicability to ornate purposes. Subject to the manipulations of a lapidary, a great number of them could be made quite pretty.

1st, QUARTZ.—Perfect crystallizations of this mineral occur on the Geode; some of which are found as large as the double fist; when fractured, exposing internally colorless crystallizations of a primary form, six-sided prisms, terminated by six-sided pyramids. Colorless pebbles of quartz, of the size of a hen's egg, and as small as a shot, abound in many localities here. When first taken out of the water, gives somewhat the appearance of sparkling dew drops. There is one specimen of the size and form of a hen's egg, perfectly transparent. These pebbles, no doubt, originally possessed the primary form of crystallization; but water, or other agencies, have thus worn out their angles, and thus rounded them.

2d, AGATE.—If the agate could be made by art to look as beautiful as when immersed in limpid water, they would, indeed, be splendid. Their color then shows to advantage, and each imperceptible line is then distinctly seen. This region is prolific in agates, from those as large as the double fist to others no larger than the finger nail. The fortification agates are the most numerous, but we have several other varieties. There is one which exposes on its surface a number of concentric lines parallel to each other, a number of which is seen here and there on the face of the agate. A second variety presents a mammillated appearance—a third resembles the moss agate; this variety has only been found on the bar of the Ouachita, opposite Harrisonburg. It is small, but a beautiful gem. The predominant color of our agates is yellow, but we find them of many other colors—*i. e.*, green, brown, chestnut, red, pink, purple, nearly black, and a cream color. They are all susceptible of a high polish, and specimens are found in this locality which would form handsome ornaments.

3d, JASPER.—There is a great variety of jasper found in this region—1st, dark red; 2d, dark brown; 3d, jasper combined with quartz and cacholong; 4th, ribbon jasper. These are also all susceptible of a high polish, and would make very pretty ornamental stones.

4th, SARDONYX.—They are found also on the same bar, and the only locality where I have met with them. A number of the specimens that I have met with are very beautiful. Dr. H. sent to Gen. Downs a specimen of sardonyx, of a crimson color, translucent with parallel lines of cacholong encircling it at the top.

5th, RED CORNELIAN abounds on the same bar. In the collection now in New-Orleans, there are many superior specimens, which bear comparison with any in the jewelry stores of the city. Yellow quartz or yellow cornelian is found also on the same bar in small amorphous masses.

6th, ONYX.—Several specimens of this gem have been collected in the same locality.

7th, FOSSIL WOOD.—Found in great variety in the pine hills, as large as nearly a whole tree, and broken fragments of hickory, pine, ash, and other kind of woods. These petrifications are all silicious, and susceptible of a very fine polish, and would be adapted to many ornamental purposes; they are of different colors, nearly black, yellow, green, and dusky white.

8th, SELENITE is found in the alluvial land, where the pine hill encroaches near the river, in small masses, which, no doubt, was detached from considerable masses in the hills. I was informed, that, in digging a well in Catahoula prairie, that, twenty feet below the surface, the workmen observed a large formation of the selenite, and raised a mass of it weighing two hundred pounds. Could this not be used as a manure?

9th, FELDSPAR, of splendid quality, is found in several different places in rounded masses. By the light reflecting on its surface, it gives the appearance of burnished silver.

- 10th, ALUMINE in great abundance.
 11th, MOUNTAIN Wood, of a mahogany color.
 12th, CHALCEDONY abounds here, of a muddy white color.
 13th, ENCRENITE abounds here, and frequently impressions of the encrenites are found here upon rocks and stones, although a perfect encrenite has not been met with.
 14th, ORATHERA are frequently found here in different locations.
 15th, OOLITE.—Specimens of it have also been found.

VOLCANIC REMNANTS.

There are many evidences seen here of volcanic action, as manifested by the specimens of fused iron ore, which, whilst in a fluid state, and when cooling, sand and pebbles become combined with it, and is firmly adherent to the mass, some of which are very large. There are *geodes* of the same mineral, that seems to have been fused also; and whilst in a liquid state, and in violent ebullition, being suddenly cooled, has taken the form of a *geode*. Being porous, the moisture of the atmospheric air has oxidized its internal surface, and has given rise to a deposition of a red and yellow oxide of the metal. These will rattle when shaken. They are seen in immense quantities in the western part of the parish.

Another variety presents the appearance whilst in a state of ebullition; having suddenly cooled, gives the appearance of bubbles on the surface.

Great quantities of lava stone are found on Sicily Island up in the high pine hills, near Mr. Knapp's academy.

METEORIC STONES have been picked up at different places in the parish, specimens of which can be seen in the collection of Doctor Holliday.

On digging wells in the pine hills, and also in Catahoula prairie, beds of oyster shells have been found twenty feet below the surface.

Two feet below the surface on the bluff lands of Sicily Island, is found a hard pan of amorphous iron ore, mingled with pebbles about six inches thick. It is pretty uniformly diffused, and constantly found on digging ditches.

Having thus disposed of the mineralogy of our parish, the next subject will be the *Fauna* and *Flora*.

Fauna and Flora—Oaks.—Of these there are eleven kinds, viz.: black, white, red, pin, post, basket, overcup, Spanish dwarf, white-oak, live-oak, and black jack. There are a few live-oaks in the Catahoula Lake, on a sandy ridge. During this year there has been a great mortality amongst the oaks in the pine hills, both up on the hills and down on the creek bottoms. This was attributed by the people to the protracted drought.

Pines of three kinds, viz.: long leaf, short leaf, and lowland pine, this latter being found along in places subject to occasional inundation. The yellow long leaf pine is the best for building purposes, and attains often the height of 120 feet. Some stocks of square timber of this tree have been got 100 feet long clear of the limbs. A considerable amount of pine lumber and round logs is annually rafted down to New-Orleans, and different points on the Mississippi River.

Elm of three kinds—white, red, and slippery elm.

Maple—two kinds, common maple, and a few trees of sugar maple.

Poplar, of large and noble size in the pine hills, and on Sicily Island. It is said this tree is not met with west of this parish. (?)

Magnolia, or bay tree, in abundance in pine hills. *Birch* plentiful along the banks of Ouachita River. *Black walnut*, *wild cherry*, *dog-wood*, found in pine hills. *Swamp dog-wood* in alluvial district. *Hickory* of five kinds, viz.: white, black, hard, shell-bark, and pig-nut. *Beach, holly, sour wood, wild peach, white bay, and sweet bay*. *Haws* of five kinds, viz.: *black, red, May, hog, and parsley haw*. *Plums* of four kinds: two kinds of *wild plums*, one of which ripens in June, the other in October. The *black plum* ripens in August, and not plentiful; and the *sloe*, or *Chickasaw plum*,

a most delicious fruit, of a large size. *Wild or bastard China*, scarce, but seen in a few places far out in the pine hills, which bears a very strong resemblance to the common China tree in foliage, bark, and berries, but does not grow so large. *Cucumber tree* (*magnolia augustiflora*.) *Shawnee wood*, or *big-leaved cucumber* (*magnolia glauca*.) *Nine bark*, or *bear foot*, (*hydrangea*.) *Spanish mulberry*, *black mulberry*, *paw paw*, *horn bean*, *iron wood*, *spice wood*, *leatherwood*, *buckeye*, only a small shrub here, but bears the same kind of flower, and balls like those in the "Buckeye State." *Myrtles* of two kinds, *sunach* of two kinds—*honeysuckles*. *Cedar* is found in the west on Dugdemonia, but not large. *Witch-hazel* blooms in November and December. *Black alder* along branches. The most of the swamp growths are omitted, as they have been so fully reported in the paper on Concordia. The *Lynn* grows on Sicily Island, and a few trees are seen along the streams in the pine hills.

Grape vines of four kinds, viz.: the *summer*; *fox*, or *small sour grape*; *raccoon grape*, has only one seed or kernel; *bunch grape*, growing on short vines, not more than two or three feet long; these ripen in summer, and are very sweet. The *bear grass* is found in the pine woods: this slightly resembles the ordinary swamp palmetto. It is said some *wild roses* have been found in the pine hills. There are many medicinal flowers and herbs very common there, which will be found in the

BOTANY, which is here given, although not complete, as it would require a much greater time and more labor than will be devoted to this, merely as a labor of love.

LIST OF BOTANICAL GROWTHS AND TREES, MADE OUT BY DR. CLARENCE PECK, ABOUT DEC., 1836.*

A.	Aronia Botrypium	Callitricha vernae
<i>Amelopiosis cordata</i> ,	Aster multiflorus	Celtis occidentalis
bipinnata	Arenaria glabra	Cercis Canadensis
var. <i>tripinnata</i>	Anthemis cotula	Commelinia Virginica
<i>quinquefolia</i>	B.	Claytonia Virginica
<i>Amarantus spinosus</i>	Barbara vulgaris	Callicarpa Americana
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	Brunnichia cirrhosa	Cardamine Ludoviciana
<i>Actinoemeris squarrosa</i>	Bumelia tenax	Cupressus disticha
<i>Esculus pavia</i>	Bignonia capreolata	Coreopsis—?
<i>Ambrosia artemisiifolia</i>	<i>radicans</i>	Corallorrhiza odontorhiza
<i>Astirrhinum Canadense</i>	Borkhaasia Caroliniana	Corydalis aurea
<i>Aristolochia serpentaria</i>	Betula nigra	Campanula amplexicaulis
<i>Arum quinatum</i>	Bidens bipinnata	Clematis crispa
<i>draconium</i>	C.	<i>reticulata</i>
<i>trifolium</i>	Cardamine Virginica	Coronaria stricta
<i>Asclepias verticillata</i>	Cynoglossum amplexicaule	Cirsium heterophyllum
<i>obtusifolia</i>	Ceanothus Americanus	D.
<i>quadrifolia</i>	Carpinus Americana	Datura Stramonium
<i>variegata</i>	Crataegus spathulata	Daucus pusillus
<i>Anona triloba</i>	<i>apiifolia</i>	Diospyros Virginiana
<i>Azalea nudiflora</i>	Cephalanthus occidentalis	Dichondra Caroliniensis
<i>Agaricus campestris</i>	Chenopodium anthelminticum	Decumaria sarmentosa
<i>Aralia spinosa</i>	Coicovulns—?	Diiodia hirsuta
<i>Ammania ramosior</i>	Cornus Florida	E.
<i>humilis</i>	<i>circinata</i>	Epiphegus Virginianus
<i>Actaea alba</i>	Chamomile Adansonii	Euphorbia corollata
<i>Apios tuberosa</i>	Carya amara	<i>thymifolia</i>
<i>Crux-Andrea</i>	<i>oliveiformis</i>	Elephantopus Carolinianus
var. <i>augustifolia</i>	Castanea vesca	Epigaea repens [? R.]
<i>Anthoceros Caroliniana</i>	<i>humilis</i>	Euonymus Americanus
<i>Agrimony Eupatoria</i>	Cassia Marylandica	Eupatorium perfoliatum
<i>Acemella repens</i>	<i>nictitans</i>	<i>coleostylum</i>
<i>Adiantum pedatum</i>	Echites difformis	
Allium—?		

* Dr. Riddell, of the University, kindly revised this list, though under instructions to make no material changes in it. The list is, doubtless, far from complete.—[Ed.]

<i>Epilobium luteum</i>	<i>Myosurus minimus</i>	<i>Spermaeoeca glabra</i>
<i>Erysimum Walteri</i>	<i>Myrica cerifera</i>	<i>Senecio lobatus</i>
<i>Erigeron Canadense</i>	<i>Myosotis arvensis</i>	<i>Spergula saginoides</i>
<i>quercifolium</i>	<i>Marrubium vulgare</i>	<i>Salvia lyrata</i>
<i>Philadelphicum</i>	<i>Mentha tenuis</i>	<i>Seriphularia Marylandica</i>
<i>Erythrina herbacea</i>	<i>Maclura aurantiaca</i>	<i>Sisyrinchium acceps</i>
	<i>Melothria pendula</i>	<i>Solanum nigrum</i>
	<i>Magnolia grandiflora</i>	<i>Caroliniana</i>
	<i>cordifolia</i>	<i>Spigelia Marylandica</i>
	<i>Malva Caroliniana</i>	<i>Sambucus Canadensis</i>
<i>F.</i>	<i>Marchantia tenella</i>	<i>Sagittaria obtusa</i>
<i>Fraxinus Juglandifolia</i>	<i>Monarda Bradburiana</i>	<i>Sida Spinosa</i>
		<i>Scutellaria lateriflora</i>
		<i>pilosa</i>
<i>G.</i>		<i>Saururus cernuus</i>
<i>Gnaphalium plantagineum</i>	<i>Schizandra coccinea</i>	<i>Smilax pseudo-China</i>
<i>purpureum</i>	<i>Nyssa aquatica</i>	<i>Sabbatia angularis</i>
<i>Gelsemium sompevirens</i>	<i>multiflora</i>	<i>Schrankia uncinata</i>
<i>Geranium Carolinianum</i>	<i>Neottia tortilla</i>	<i>Stillingia sylvatica</i>
	<i>Nymphaea odorata</i>	<i>ligustrina</i>
<i>Gieditschia triacanthus</i>		
<i>monosperma</i>		<i>T.</i>
<i>Gonolobus viridiflorus</i>		<i>Tradescantia Virginica</i>
<i>Gymnocladus Canadensis</i>		<i>Trillium sessile</i>
<i>Gratiola analagoides</i>		<i>Thlaspi bursa-pastoris</i>
<i>Gaultheria tinctoria</i>		<i>Tillandsia usneoides</i>
<i>asprellum</i>		<i>Trifolium repens</i>
		<i>Tephrosia Virginica</i>
<i>H.</i>		
<i>Hydrangea quercifolia</i>		<i>U.</i>
<i>Hoppea tinctoria</i>		<i>Ulmus fulva</i>
<i>Hottonia palustris</i>		<i>alata</i>
<i>Hypericum corymbosum</i>		<i>memorialis</i>
<i>Virginicum</i>		<i>Americana</i>
<i>Hydrocotyle umbellata</i>		<i>Urtica pumila</i>
<i>Hydrocolea quadrivalvis</i>		<i>urens</i> . [This cannot be the U. urens, Linn. It is probably either U. pur- purescens, Nutt, or the U. Aureliana, Riddell.— M. S. Plantae of Louis- iana, No. 1582.—R.]
<i>Hydrocharis spongiosa</i>		<i>Uraspermum procumbens</i>
<i>Hibiscus grandiflora</i>		<i>Utricularia vulgaris</i>
<i>Carolinianus</i>		<i>gibba</i>
<i>Halesia diptera</i>		
<i>Hamamelis Virginica</i>		<i>V.</i>
<i>Hedysarum rotundifolium</i>		<i>Vitis rotundifolia</i>
		<i>vulpina</i>
<i>I.</i>		<i>riparia</i>
<i>Ilex pruinoides</i>		<i>motivialis</i>
<i>opaca</i>		<i>Inhirsuta</i>
<i>Isardia cylindrica</i>		<i>Vicia parviflora</i>
<i>sphaerocarpa</i>		<i>Veronica peregrina</i>
<i>Ipomea coccinea</i>		<i>Verbena aubletii</i>
<i>Itea Virginica</i>		<i>Verbascum Thapsus</i>
<i>Iris cuprea</i>		<i>Vaccinium</i> —?
		<i>Viburnum prunifolium</i>
<i>J.</i>		<i>Viscum verticillatum</i>
<i>Jungermannia parella</i>		<i>Viola septemloba</i>
<i>Juglans nigra</i>		<i>cucullata</i>
<i>Justicia humilis</i>		<i>pedata</i>
		<i>palinata</i>
<i>K.</i>		<i>Muhlenbergia</i>
<i>Krigia amplexicaulis</i>		
		<i>W.</i>
<i>L.</i>		<i>Wenlandia populifolia</i>
<i>Lusula campestris</i>		
<i>Leouurus Cardica</i>		<i>Y.</i>
<i>Laurus Sassafras</i>		<i>Yucca filamentosa</i>
<i>Benzoin</i>		
<i>Liatris</i> —?		<i>Z.</i>
<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>		<i>Zizyphus volubilis</i>
<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>		<i>Zanthoxylum tricarpum</i>
<i>Listeria cordata</i>		<i>Zapania nodiflora</i>
<i>Lithospermum latifolium</i>		
<i>Lobelia cardinalis</i>		
<i>Claytoniana</i>		
<i>Ludwigia</i> —?		
<i>Lysimachia ciliata</i>		
<i>M.</i>		
<i>Miegia macroisperma</i>		
<i>Melia Azedarach</i>		
<i>Menispermum Lyonii</i>		
<i>Mikania pubescens</i>		
<i>Mimulus alatus</i>		
<i>Mitchella repens</i>		
<i>Mollugo verticillata</i>		
<i>Momordica echinata</i>		
<i>Monotropa uniflora</i>		
<i>Morus rubra</i>		

ANIMALS.—In the early settlement of this country the bulk of the property consisted in neat cattle, as can be ascertained by inquiry, or reference to the records of the Probate Court, where this species of property occupies the pages very prominently. Even now, many persons in the western part of the parish have large droves of cattle, because the lands are very poor, cotton gins are scarce, and the market rather inaccessible. *Mules* were not numerous in the parish till within the last fifteen years. The Lovelaces had two mules as early as 1812-13, on Sicily Island. At this time the planters prefer them as work animals. In 1837, the *charbonne* appeared on Sicily Island and killed sixteen horses and two mules of Dr. Nuttall, and two mules of Dr. Peck's. A few years after that, some mules and cattle of Gayoso Lovelace were killed by it; and a negro man, in skinning an ox, got the disease in his eye, which produced violent local inflammation: the scalp and face were immensely swollen, and the eye was entirely destroyed.

Bears were very numerous in early times, as has been before stated. The meat of these animals formed a very important article of diet; the oil was used for cooking, and to grease leather machinery; also used medicinally, and to dress the hair of the beaux and belles, even as it is at this day. The skins were used for many domestic purposes, and also as articles of commerce. In G. W. Lovelace's mercantile books, is seen this bill of articles, shipped on a keel, or flat-boat, in 1813: *Bear skins*, 243; *Deer skins*, 450; *Beaver skins*, 28. These animals, when very fat, weigh from 500 to 700 pounds. It has been repeatedly asserted by old hunters, that no person has ever found a she bear with the cubs in her womb. But Mr. Henry and Stephen Holstein, on Sicily Island, state positively that they have seen the young frequently about the size of a large flat bean, but perfectly formed. They were instructed by Indians how to search for them. When the cubs are first born they are not as large as a grown rat, and are devoid of hair or fur, like a young rat. The dam is very careful and tender in her nursing of them; she sits down on her haunches and holds them to the teats while they suck. Several citizens of Sicily Island went, in the month of November, 1851, on a bear hunt, up in the swamps of Franklin Parish, taking about thirty hounds and curs, an ox-team and wagon, two negroes, plenty of tents, bedding, corn, and other necessaries, and were out more than two weeks, and killed ten bears and five deer. They would have killed more, but unluckily their best dog was killed, and the others so much crippled that they were compelled to quit. The region of country where they hunted was so low, flat, and wet, that they could not haul away their meat: so they constructed a scaffold ten feet high, salted the meat away upon it, covered it with a tent, and so left it, hoping at some time to get it away.

Deer are sometimes found of variegated colors, such as roan, piebald, and spotted. Judge Taliaferro had one as a pet some years ago, that was entirely white all over, and even the eyes were white. There was a wild one of the same description seen a few years ago on Sicily Island.

There is a difference between the deer in the pine hills and those in the swamp, and this is observable in those killed on the north and south side of Catahoula Lake. Those in the pine hills drop their young in May and June, while those in the alluvion drop theirs in July and August. They very seldom have more than two at one time.

Panthers were at one time quite numerous, but of late years have been thinned out and chased off. Even a few years ago, as many as eight were killed in one season on the island. Many years ago, a panther attacked a horse in the woods, and killed it. A mover, as late as 1836, had one to attack one of his horses while camped on the island, and he shot it while

It was on the horse. One killed an Indian at his camp, and ate what he wanted of the carcase before the other Indians came up. One attacked old Mr. John Lovelace in his camp, when moving from Red River to the island : but his faithful negro, Jupiter, shot the animal and killed it before his master was hurt. In the scuffle, though, a negro woman, in attempting to club the panther, struck Mr. L. a terrible blow on the head, which nearly proved fatal.

Wolves are very numerous all through the pine hills ; but there are more in the wild ravines of the island than anywhere else, and sometimes are very troublesome and destructive to young lambs and pigs. Even this fall they are very numerous, and the citizens have to set poison for them. They are of as many different colors as the domesticated dog. There is also the *cataamount* and *wild cat* ; *salamander* or ground rat, having long pouches on each side ; *wild ground mice*, and *moles*. **Beavers** formerly were plentiful in this country, and the skins were used for many purposes. There are two *beaver dams* on the lands of Dr. Peck at this time.

Alligators are not so numerous as in early times ; and it is stated by those who have had the amplest opportunities for observing them, that they seldom exceed twelve feet in length. The oil is suitable for many domestic purposes, particularly in dressing leather. Formerly it was a good deal used to grease machinery. It is said to be so very subtle and penetrating, that when suffered to remain for some time in a pot it will penetrate the metal. It is highly charged with the musky odor, which never leaves it, and on this account is very nauseating to man, beast, and insect. If much is rubbed on a horse, it will deprive him of appetite for two or three days. One large alligator will yield from eight to twelve gallons of oil, which is worth a dollar a gallon. It is best rendered by a slow, gentle heat, and when proper care is taken, is very transparent.

Striped lizard, or racer ; **bull snake**, or blowing snake ; **jointed snake**. The writer has never seen one of these snakes, but has ample testimony of their presence in the country. They break readily from the stroke of a small rod, but never reunite. They are not numerous nor poisonous. **Coach-whip snake**. **Scorpion**, vulgarly called *stinging lizard*, is the true scorpion of natural history, and is very plentiful in the pine hills. **Centipedes**, also abundant in the same locality. These are said to be very poisonous ; but Henry Holstein said he saw one sting a schoolmaster on the naked shoulder, without producing any bad effects.

[To be concluded in our next.]

ART. IV.—COTTON PLANTERS' CONVENTION.

[The Cotton Planters' Convention, to be held in May next, at Montgomery, Alabama, will, we trust, be attended by large delegations from all of the cotton states. In the interim, we recommend to our readers the following interesting letter, which foreshadows a plan of action for the Convention, should it be thought more practicable and efficacious than others that have been proposed.]

—EDITOR.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.—I do not expect to attend the Convention of Cotton Planters, proposed to be held in May next, in Montgomery ; and will take the liberty of submitting to you, and, if you think proper, to your readers, the plan which I proposed at the late Macon Convention. It was there submitted in the shape of a few resolutions, which found favor with the committee of twenty-one, who twice recommended their adoption. On the last day, however

when not a fifth of the members were present, the report of the committee was set aside, and the "Florida Scheme," as published in your November number, was adopted as a substitute.

Strange to say, the Macon correspondent of the New-York Courier and Enquirer represented me as the zealous advocate of the substitute. I promptly denied the slander, in a letter addressed to the editor, and received an apology for the mistake, with the offer to publish my plan, if I would forward it. I did so; but as yet have seen no publication of either my denial or the plan.

It would be well if every scheme which may be brought before the Convention should previously be submitted to the view of the planting interest, so as to be maturely considered and well understood. My experience as a member of two such conventions, convinces me of the policy of such a course.

The evils complained of by the cotton planters are, that the prices of their staple production are *irregular*, and too often not *remunerative*. The first-named evil has at times been disastrously felt by others than growers of cotton; and if a remedy can be devised, the good will not be confined to the cotton planter.

These fluctuations sometimes cause a difference of from *thirty* to *sixty millions of dollars* in the sales of two crops: a difference productive not only of loss to the planter, but which sometimes tells with disastrous effect upon foreign exchanges and banking institutions. These fluctuations are always in the inverse ratio of the production. Thus, while a crop of only 2,200,000 bales of cotton will yield to the producers *one hundred and ten millions of dollars*, a crop of 2,800,000 bales will pay only *sixty millions*; and the bounty of Heaven, in the gift of good seasons, proves more destructive to the planter than seasons of drought, flood, storms and frosts. This loss of fifty millions of dollars falls with its full weight upon the planter, but is also felt by all engaged in, or dependent upon, commerce; and they are equally interested in the discovery of a remedy; yet it is chiefly by such that Cotton Planters' Conventions are jeered at and ridiculed. True it is, that no good resulted from the action of the Convention held in Macon, in the year 1839, and that as little can be expected from that lately held in the same city; but it does not follow that an efficient remedy cannot be found: at any rate, the importance of the object will justify renewed effort.

The *dogma* "that prices must and will be regulated by the relations of *supply* and *demand*," is by many deemed conclusive refutation of all hope of success. But the question to be solved is, "whether the *supply* cannot be so regulated as to secure *regular* and *remunerating prices?*" If it can, the remedy is found.

If the cotton crop of the United States belonged to one man, the remedy would be obvious. Naming his price, he would sell only so much as is required for consumption, and leave the residue under his cotton shed, to supply deficiency in the crop of next year; and if the surplus was large, he would plant less next year. Such a course would be efficient for the object; and the only obstacle to similar action by the cotton planters generally, is the difficulty of procuring

concert of action. The difficulty is great, but I think not insuperable.

Besides the loss attendant upon a large crop, the planter is often subjected to loss upon a small one, because of his ignorance of the extent of the crop of the country. Cotton is the agricultural staple of some eight or ten states, covering a vast extent of country. Seasons are often favorable in some districts, and unfavorable in others. Dealers in cotton take measures to inform themselves, with sufficient accuracy, of the extent of the crop, and are prepared to go into the market with knowledge of its value. It is their interest, too, to exaggerate its extent; and this is annually done by publication of what purports to be extracts of letters written in cotton states, but really fabricated for the purpose. The planter, ignorant of its real amount, and influenced by such statements, disposes of his crop at low prices, before the falsehood is discovered.

For *low prices*, a remedy would be found, in an agreement to plant less cotton; but that would not prevent *irregularity* in price, because good and bad seasons would still cause irregular production; and although *remunerative*, prices would be *irregular*. A bad season might also so reduce the supply, as to throw out of employment a large portion of capital, and of operatives, now engaged in its manufacture. Such a state of things would be deplorable, and in the end injurious to the grower. His interests, and those of the manufacturer, are best subserved by regular and reasonable prices.

The first thing to be done by the Convention, should be the adoption of a plan for ascertaining the extent of each year's crop. This is essential to all judicious and efficient action. I propose to effect it by the agency of Planters' Societies, to be organized in every county in the cotton states. By districting the counties, and distributing the labor among the members, the crop of each county can be ascertained by the middle of January every year. The county societies should immediately thereafter report the amount of the crop to a committee, or some officer, residing at the seat of the state government, who should report the aggregate crop of the state to a central committee, to be appointed by the Cotton Planters' Convention; upon which central committee should also devolve the labor of obtaining all attainable information respecting the probable demand by manufacturers at home and abroad—the supplies which may be expected from other countries—and, generally, all the information in its power, connected with the production and consumption of cotton.

The information referred to, and the reports from the state committees, may be in the possession of the central committee by the 1st April in each year, and should be published; and the planters advised what proportion of their respective crops should be sold, and what retained.

But inasmuch as a considerable portion of the crop is annually sold before the report of the central committee could be made, I propose an agreement among the planters, "not to sell more than two-thirds of their respective crops before receipt of said report, and not to sell any for a price less than agreed upon." And further,

"not to sell more of the reserved one-third, than shall be advised by the central committee." For illustration of my meaning : Supposing the crop to be 2,700,000 bales, the sale of two-thirds would amount to 1,800,000—leaving 900,000 bales on hand. If advised that the consumption of American cotton would be only 2,200,000 bales, each planter should then sell only *four* out of every nine bales which had been reserved, and retain the remaining five bales under his cotton shed, to await future demand, or supply deficiencies in future crops.

Experience has shown that a crop of 2,700,000 bales, thrown upon the market, will reduce the price of cotton to about five cents ; whereas, a crop of only 2,200,000 bales will raise it to thirteen cents, or more. These are extreme priees ; the first not remunerative to the planter, the last tending too much to stimulate production elsewhere. The interests of all parties, producers, manufacturers and consumers, will be best served by moderate and regular prices—say, about ten cents per pound. At that price, two-thirds of his crop will put more money into the planter's pocket than would the whole crop, sold at six cents.

I have said that the difficulty of obtaining concert of action among planters, so widely separated from each other, is great ; but my confidence in its practicability is based upon their obvious interest, and their good common sense. Although less expert at figures than the speculators in their staple, the least informed among them can see that *ten bales* of cotton, sold at ten cents, will yield more money than *fifteen bales*, sold at six cents. And, aided by past experience of the evils resulting from want of organization, it demands no extraordinary faith in their good sense, to believe that concert may be obtained.

The only objection ever made to this plan, is, "that the planters will not act in good faith, but will secretly sell more than their proportion of their crops." Now, without claiming for cotton planters a higher character for honor and integrity, I may say, that they possess as much of those qualities as any other class of our population. And although some may, and will, act basely, the number will be small, and their unfaithfulness will but little affect the result. I may say the same of another small class, found in every community—Solomons, in their own conceit, who make it a point of honor never to think, or act, like their neighbors ; and who will, perhaps, refuse to enter into the agreement. But if the plan suggested be tried, breaches of faith will be fewer and fewer every year ; and where a sense of honor will not restrain, fear of exposure and shame will. Without some general concert of action, *no plan can succeed* : and that now proposed presents as few objections as any other. It proposes no advance of money—no risk of loss—and no change in the pursuits of the planter. If adopted, it must do good. It can do no harm. You have, in the preceding, my plan for regulating the price of cotton.

There is another subject connected with the cotton interest which I have much at heart ; and which, in the shape of a resolution, I submitted to the Convention. I know not whether it was adopted, having left the meeting upon discovery of the determination of the small

number present to force the question upon the adoption of the substitute. My resolution recommended the erection of cotton manufactures in every county in the cotton states. These factories to commence with *spinning*: and afterwards connecting the business of weaving into cloth.

Spinning requires little skill in the operatives; and *yarns* sell for double the price of the raw material. The facility of obtaining *yarn* from neighboring factories, would enable our planters to clothe their families and servants better and cheaper than now. There are, upon every plantation, servants who, at times, would be inefficient in the field, while perfectly able to work the loom. This, however, is the least of the benefits which would result from the system of manufacturing. Millions of pounds of cotton *yarn* are annually exported from Great Britain to the continent of Europe, and to other portions of the world; and the business of *spinning* is said to be more profitable than that of *weaving*. Our southern factories would obtain the raw material at, at least, twenty per cent. cheaper than those of England; and southern *yarn* and cloth would monopolize both the foreign and the home market. Let each county commence with a factory of one thousand spindles; and let the planters agree to invest, annually, ten per cent. of their crops in the extension of such factories; and in a few years they would manufacture the whole crop of the country, and export it, in the shape of *yarn* and cloth. Such a course would double the value of our exports, and would add to the prosperity of the country more than the gold mines of California, twice told. Its effect upon the banking institutions and commercial interests of the country cannot be sufficiently estimated. But for the gold of California, these interests would, ere now, have been prostrate, and the country experiencing a recurrence of the scenes of the year 1837. The mines of California may cease to be productive; but not so the proceeds of the cotton fields.

The manufacture of the cotton crop would employ as many operatives as are engaged in its production; and the food and sustenance of this body of operatives would enable our planters so to diversify their agricultural operations, as to transfer one-half of their labor from cotton to the production of breadstuffs.

But this scheme of manufacturing the cotton crop has another aspect, which commends itself to the favor of the patriot, philanthropist and Christian. In the cotton states there is a numerous white population scattered over the pine barrens, and subsisting by hunting and raising stock. From their dispersed condition they cannot have either schools or churches; and their children must grow up without religion, and ignorant of even the alphabet. What greater curse can be inflicted upon a republic, than an ignorant and irreligious population? Such, however, must be the fate of large portions of the southern states, unless a remedy can be found. That remedy will be furnished by the erection of cotton factories, around which will be collected our piney-wood population; and schools and churches will be supplied.

A volume might be written upon this head; but I will desist.

JOHN G. GAMBLE.

ART. V.—THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.*

ANALYSIS.

THE SITUATION OF HOLLAND; HER DYKES; HER FIGURE IN HISTORY—SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS; THEIR DISCONTENTS—THE PROGRESS OF REPUBLICANISM, LIKE MONARCHISM, SLOW AND GRADUAL—THE MIXED CHARACTER OF THE REPUBLIC; THE STADTHOLDER; HIS MODELS, ABSOLUTE PRINCES—DEVELOPMENT OF THE SYSTEM OF CHECKS AND BALANCES; FREQUENT COLLISIONS BETWEEN THE SEPARATE POWERS RENDERED THE STADTHOLDER'S AUTHORITY NECESSARY—REP. OF HOLLAND COMPARED WITH THOSE OF CARTHAGE, ROME AND UNITED STATES—RELIGIOUS TOLERATION—FREEDOM OF THE PRESS—COMMERCE AND WEALTH; TO WHAT ATTRIBUTABLE—MODERN HOLLAND AND THE DUTCH.

To the casual observer, who casts his eye over Europe, it may seem strange that such a province as Holland—or even all Germany, should have figured so extensively in history.

He traces the long lines of dykes, interspersed with canals and standing lakes, and fields of wet, barren loam—all lying below the tide, which threatens them from without, and wonders that they have not long ago been given up to the water.

Yet this little section comprises one of the most remarkable portions of the globe; remarkable for its many strange vicissitudes, in peace and war. Here have sat the great wise men of the earth, deliberating on questions affecting the welfare of Germany and the world. Here have figured the greatest generals. Here have stood the bravest armies—and here have been fought the bloodiest battles.

We can scarcely, without a shudder, contemplate the bloody scenes, the awful struggles, which have been here enacted on this so-called “battle-field of Europe.”

Holland has annually to expend vast sums of money to protect her precarious possessions from inundation. The labor necessary for constructing her dykes, (the materials for which are usually brought from Norway,) might well stagger any but her own indomitable sons.

A brief sketch of her earlier history may neither be inappropriate nor uninteresting :

In the year 1477, the Netherlands, which had been governed by the Dukes of Burgundy, fell by marriage to the House of Austria. Under Maximilian, the seventeen provinces were formed into one state; under Charles V. they became united with Spain; under Philip II. the seven northern provinces—Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Overyssel, Groningen, and Friesland, becoming dissatisfied, first began upon that career which is embraced in the present subject.

As early as the year 1566–7, their discontents seem to have commenced. It was then they began to realize that they were ruled by a foreign sovereign. Philip was not the man that Charles, his father, had been; and the Netherlands were not slow to find it out. His ideas and *notions*; in a word, his whole character was essentially

* Several years ago we published an interesting paper upon the System of Levees and Dykes in Holland, contributed by the Hon. A. B. Roman, of Louisiana, which the reader will consult to advantage.—[ED.]

Spanish; nor did he attempt to conceal his preferences for his Spanish subjects. The high nobility—the proud aristocracies of the Netherlands, each day, saw themselves supplanted in the favors of the king, by some haughty, overbearing, and not unfrequently worthless, Spaniard.

Nor was this all—religious persecution began to crowd its lists with victims and martyrs;—neither high nor low could escape its fatal venom;—though for awhile disguised, the Inquisition, which has so *blackened* the history of Spain, soon began openly to show its frightful visage.

The Hollanders have ever been described as a very slow, phlegmatic people:—and so they are. There can be no doubt, but that a man less austere, ostentatious and haughty, than Philip—though equally ambitious and selfish, would have found no great difficulty in satisfying their demands.

Charles was no less ambitious. There can be but little doubt that his policy was nearly the same in respect to religious toleration; yet his natural foresight had been less blinded by pride. He had learned to compromise what could not be carried out openly and direct.

It will not now be necessary to follow out the administration of the Duchess of Parma, assisted by Grenville—nor the separate courses of the Princes of Orange, of Egmont, or Horn—nor even the conduct of the cruel Duke of Alva, who came from Spain with an army to succeed the Duchess—nor his successor, Requesnes:—all the incidents herewith associated must be considered as links in a chain of consequences—springing from one cause, and tending toward *one object*.

In perusing this portion of Holland, we are carried through many strange scenes and vicissitudes—we witness much suffering, much cruelty, and many sieges. It was at this time that the rich city of Antwerp fell—a city of commercial importance, probably equal to any in Europe at that time.

Close to this siege appears the “Pacification of Ghent”—(1576;) the object of which seems to have been the expulsion of foreign troops, and the suspension of the severe religious edicts of Alva.

This pacification was indeed ratified—but soon violated by the king. In 1579, the Provinces took another more important step, and entered into the “Union of Utrecht.”

Already had their movements assumed a more solemn and revolutionary character; already, under the guidance of the Prince of Orange, had they begun to appreciate their own position, and nerve their spirits for the worst. The coin, which was at this time struck off, significantly “represented a ship laboring amidst the waves, unassisted by sails or oars,” with this expressive motto: “*Incertum quo fata ferant.*”

In 1581, the provinces solemnly renounced their allegiance to Philip. Here, then, may we date the birth of the republic. And though we might find it in a more settled state, if we should trace its history for a few more years, when, after various vicissitudes, in 1609, a truce for twelve years was agreed upon, and the provinces

recognized as independent ; yet, since no new element is therein developed, it may be allowable to leave the subject *here* for a time.

Let us then look back to note what progress has been made : to see according to what principles this great and important revolution has been moving.

This part of the subject opens to us a broad field—a field well worthy the attention of the philosopher ; and especially the philosopher of liberal principles.

To trace the upward progress of republicanism, has ever been a pleasing task to an American ;—and yet, one not without its pains—for at no time has he been allowed to witness more than the partial success of those principles on which the heart had been set. Yet this has buoyed him up—that no *earnest striving* has been in vain—that at each step some actual progress has been made. At times it might have seemed retrograde ; yet in the end he finds that some overruling Providence has directed all.

And thus it is in the development of any great and important principle. The course and order of nature is slow, and ages are required.

Monarchy did not attain its modern perfection at one spring. It rose with convulsive throes—with earnest, anxious strugglings, from the confused elements of *political chaos* and feudalism.

Such has been the progress of republican principles. One age attempting to reform the abuses of another, runs into the opposite extreme ; released from despotism, the most objectionable forms of democracy were for one instant embraced with the greatest enthusiasm : and when abuses had gone beyond all bounds, with as little ceremony was a dictator placed at the head of affairs. Then must the advocates of free principles hide their heads, and in turn abide their season of disgrace and contumely. Then comes in aristocracy, to exert her most baneful and destructive influence.

This, in a measure, is the history of the ancient republics. Thus did they alternate between licentiousness and oppression.

The republic of Holland was of a mixed nature. In its composition, aristocracy entered largely. The stadholder's authority was very considerable. On the one hand “too great for the chief of a republic”—on the other, “too little for the head of a monarchy.” His only models, at that time, were absolute sovereigns.

William, Prince of Orange, for a long time possessed this authority. For his many great virtues, for his wisdom and military talents, he has left an enviable reputation. To him belongs the glory of having freed his country from a grievous yoke ; of having been in all times wisest to foresee, ablest and most willing to avert dangers and difficulties. His consistent firmness, his *uniform* prudence and *never-failing* patriotism, have placed him high among the world's heroes. And yet, that the authority which he wielded might have been inconsistent with the interests of the republic, may be proved by reference to the latter part of the life of his son Maurice. How many abuses may be traced to this one source ! How many rights violated ! The disgraceful termination of the dispute between the

Arminians and Gomarists—the illegal Synod of Dort—the imprisonment of Grotius, and closely following, the martyrdom of that purest of patriots, Olden Barneveldt—are quite sufficient for its condemnation.

Still I think that the fault may be justly charged to the necessary constitution of the republic, owing to the nature of its elements. The seven provinces, though contiguous, were yet very dissimilar. Nothing but an absolute necessity seems to have held them together. Friesland was essentially a kingdom; Brabant and Guelderland, dukedoms; Holland and Flanders, earldoms or counties; and Utrecht, a bishopric.

There was then need of centralization in some form, some common point, around which these discordant elements might arrange themselves.

Yet the history of this portion of the republic has been of infinite value to our own government. Here was perfected that important system of *checks* and *balances* which, though unwieldy to those who did not fully understand its nature, is yet, under a more skilful organization, one of the great *ramparts* of freedom.

Not only each state, but each city enjoyed an independence of its own. The senators were chosen for life, and had the privilege of appointing the members of the provincial states. The members of the states-general were elected by the aristocracy. The states-general of course represented the general government, yet its authority depended very much upon the *will* of the separate states at home; and what illustrates still farther their *cautious individuality*, is the fact, that not only a majority but a *concurrence* of votes, was necessary for the adoption of any measure.

Next came the council of state, with its fixed number of deputies, of which Holland sent three; Guelderland, Zealand and Utrecht, each two; Friesland, Overyssel and Groningen, each one. The duties of this council were, to deliberate concerning the security, defence and protection of the states, and to take charge of all military and financial affairs.

To these were added the chamber of accounts and the council of admiralty. The former consisted of two members from each province. Its name sufficiently attests its character—its authority was nothing more than its name implies. The latter was of more importance, since in it was vested the authority over naval affairs.

This brief outline conveys a faint impression of the constitution of the republic. Had these separate powers been more critically defined, they would have been more efficient and far less objectionable. But as it was, they came into frequent collisions, and the superintendence of some sovereign power made most necessary. Here then came in the authority of the stadholder—a power which, though obnoxious to abuses, was yet most essential to the least degree of concert and success.

As I have before mentioned, the progress which Holland had made in the science of republicanism, was in the more perfect development of *checks* and *balances*, while at the same time she retained many of the faults of former republics.

If we compare her to the ancient republics of Carthage and Rome, I think we shall find that she was more aristocratic than the former, and *less* than the latter; for although Carthage selected her senate from men of "birth, merit and wealth," yet a *concurrence* of votes was necessary for action, and in case of any disagreement, the question was referred to the people. There was also a committee of 104 members, appointed to watch and restrain the ambition of the great families. To this committee the admirals and generals had to render their accounts.

In many respects, both in legislation and commerce, Holland very much resembled Carthage.

Rome was more aristocratic, since more authority was placed in the hands of the patricians, to the positive exclusion of the lower orders.

But how does Holland stand beside our own government? We believe that our system of balances and checks is in no way inferior to hers, no less effectual: we are in part indebted for *it* to her experience, and we believe it has been much improved. We think its graduations more simple—its operation less subject to collisions. The latter is a historic fact. It is more simple, because more uniform; it is less subject to collisions, because the separate powers are more accurately defined.

The various interests, secured under our constitution, are no less diverse and complex; and yet *with us* the state comes less frequently in conflict with the general government, and the general government is less dependent upon the states. Ours is a *nation*—hers was a federative union, and that in an imperfect state; since her inhabitants were not yet ripe for the more perfect development of that kind of confederation, which Guizot pronounces most difficult, and which requires the greatest intelligence and moderation on the part of a people.

But we must not forget that much is due to the peculiar circumstances in which Holland was placed. She was like a "stranger in a strange land;" for a long time she stood alone, unrecognized by the surrounding nations; now begging aid of England—now of France—while either of these two powers seemed ready to take any advantage of her weakness. This was no time for idle speculation; before her stood the naked reality, while stern necessity was crowding her forward.

Yet there is one feature in the history of this republic, which shines forth in resplendent beauty. Her shores were open to the oppressed of every land. Here was an asylum for the persecuted of Germany, France, Hungary, and even England; and in *these* she received the learned men of every science—the ablest teachers of every useful art.

Let it be the glory of Holland that she was first to teach the world the great and true principles of religious toleration. Let it be her glory, that through every vicissitude, exposed to dangers from without and within, she kept inviolably sacred the *freedom* of the press.

These are the two brightest gems in her *national diadem*. It

may be reasonably deemed a subject for wonder, that the provinces, in so short a time, in the very face of war and devastation, should have arisen to so great a height of wealth and power. Yet that such was their progress cannot be denied, and still our age is very prone to forget the real eminence which their commerce attained. Though their own country produced scarcely a single material for ship building—though possessed of no mines, and though *loaded* with taxes—they yet soon stood without a rival, the first commercial people on the globe.

In Europe alone they had 1,200 merchant ships, and more than 70,000 sailors actively engaged. They built annually 2,000 vessels. In the year 1598, 80 ships sailed from their ports for the Indies and America; and Sir William Petty, estimating the whole shipping of Europe, in 1690, at 2,000,000 tons, reckons that of Holland as high as 900,000, or near one-half.

The fact must be attributed to the central position of their country; to the liberal character of their government; to religious toleration; to the fact that persecution and oppression were raging with peculiar violence in other countries; and to the *innate character* of their people.

The Dutch were noted for their steady, persevering and well-directed habits of industry. They have, through every vicissitude, retained something of the qualities of their early progenitors, the ancient Batavii, whose bravery and love of freedom have been described to us by Tacitus. They formed the flower of the old Roman armies, and were said to have won for Cæsar the victory of Pharsalia. They were noted for their slow, *conservative* habits. So are the Dutch: the spirit of enterprise was *slow* to take hold of them; their enthusiasm did not drive them on to imaginary romantic exploits, but kindled in their breasts a steady, *perpetual* fire, which, once lighted, impelled them on to a work of *reality*, an enterprise for a life. Then it is we see them starting forth for the most distant parts of the earth—"not indeed the first to discover new worlds, but the first to make the name of European respected and revered."

But the days of the republic are past, and Holland in a measure seems to have outlived her glory. Since the time of Bonaparte, she has been governed by kings; and though of respectable rank, she has ceased to figure so extensively in history. The Dutchman now, by common consent, seems to stand the representative of a class some centuries behind its age. To him is attributed every outlandish oddity; of him we hear but seldom except in jokes. He seems to walk about the thoroughfares with his "broad brim," a listless *indifferent* spectator to the busy scenes around—a very Rip Van Winkle, dead to the spirit of progress and improvement, involved in "*mists and doubts*."

The mention of his name brings "Hans" vividly before the mind. His chief pest is the *Yankee*, who cuts up his cabbage garden with rail-road tracks. He belongs to a nation of inveterate *smokers*, who live in some far-off Utopia, fight their battles by means of *proclamations*, and get up "*pipe plots*" to bring their obnoxious rulers to terms.

But that such is far from being the true character of the Dutch, who are even yet worthy of their Batavian ancestry, may be learned from but a partial perusal of their history in the glorious days of the republic.

Their great men then stand forth *proud* among the *great*; their wise men, pre-eminent among the wise.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE SUGAR INTERESTS.

THE kindness with which my humble, yet I trust, in some cases, useful articles, have been published in the Review, as also the flattering comments of its Editor upon re-publishing my Texas correspondence from other journals, induce me to pen this, probably my last of upwards of one hundred letters upon the important subject of sugar. So much has been said by others, of various plans of revivification of old worn-out sugar lands, of the several modes of sugar manufacture, of the multiform machinery employed in sugar-houses, &c., that I have no remarks to make on these heads, nor do I intend to say anything pro or con respecting the numerous every-day theories, etc. Experiments and experience will determine all. Some may fail, as I myself have done, in some cases, during the last 13 years, principally devoted to experiments appertaining to my profession, whilst others will succeed and confer a boon on the sugar growers of Louisiana. I trust I may not be accused of egotism, when I say that I intend this letter to embrace all which I believe to be necessary to the well-doing of the sugar growers of Louisiana.

It must be apparent to every well informed planter, that his land requires renewing in some way or other, which can be easily effected in various ways. For instance, you can have all the kinds of land on your estate analyzed, and afterwards supply the deficiency. But probably the most direct and straight-forward way, and one which would suit all classes of sugar planters, would be, to adopt Professor Liebig's theory, and use in abundance, as they do in England, that manure which is known to be the food of what is intended to be raised.

Now, suppose this to be the case: then the dressing required in lime in some form or other, say a compost of lime and rotted bagasse, silex and marl, or what is perhaps better than all, a top dressing of from 8 to 12 bushels to the acrent, of phosphate of lime, in the form of crushed or pulverized bones. How very cheap; how easily procured; how simply pulverized and used; and above all, how agreeable to contemplate, is 500 hogheads of sugar, instead of 300 hogheads; at the same time, with the enhanced value of a plantation intrinsically. I am about to erect a steam bone-mill upon the English plan; it is very simple and cheap, and can be managed by plantation hands, and one of them can be attached to any sugar mill engine at small cost by any ordinary mechanic. Mine will be a long way out of the road, but in a bone district. Should any gentleman wish to erect one for himself, I shall be happy to give him any information by letter, should he write me upon the subject.

I will now proceed to a subject upon which I am equally, or perhaps rather more, at home.

It is now five years ago since I openly condemned the use of lime in sugar manufacture, giving chemical reasons for its discontinuance, and at a single view showing its injurious effects. I was then called a fool. How agreeable! However, I again denouned the lime—*First*, because some of the best crops have been made without it. *Second*, because several of its old adherents have given it up, and become cold-water converts. *Third*, because in addition to my numerous, previously promulgated chemical reasons, I give another, which in all probability will be the last I shall ever write, upon this all-important manufacture.

Take double steam refined sugar; dissolve it in pure water; boil and reboil it, and no change takes place—it remains limpid and inodorous. Add the smallest quantity of lime and it becomes colored, and emits a disagreeable smell. Upon

cane juice this has still a more perceptible and destructive effect. I do not lay claim to infallibility, but I know I am not wrong in condemning the use of lime. As I before stated, I have made some failures, especially in making second products; but I have since succeeded to admiration—and I may ask, who has not had mishaps?

Without more ado, I will give your readers an account of my successful, cheap, simple, and effective apparatus for sugar making, which any person of ordinary perception will see at one view is calculated to supersede all other modes. It costs less than a common set of kettles, makes double the quantity of sugar in half the time, and with less than one-half the fuel; and, perhaps, not the least desideratum is, that a planter with 30 hands can cope with his neighbor who works 50 hands.

The *modus operandi* is a continuous, tortuous waste steam clarifier, several large settling cisterns, and a double flue pneumatic kettle.

The clarifier can be made and erected large enough for any sugar-house, for 100 dollars. Its name will indicate its shape, but I will minutely describe it: It is a continuation of the waste steam pipe from the heater, and leads into the trough which conveys the juice from the mill to the receivers. This trough is now made 4 feet wide, and is about 8 or 9 feet long. It is to be one foot deep; it is supplied with alternating slats or partial partitions of wood 3 feet long; these slats are so arranged as the first shall be attached on one side of the trough, the next to the other side, and so on to the number of 12; thus it will be seen, a zig-zag is made which causes the juice to have a travel of near 100 feet in a 9 foot trough. At the bottom of the box lies the tortuous copper pipe, its open end leading into the atmosphere, for the escape of condensed water, &c. At the end is a door 6 inches high, over which the juice has to fall, and which retains it sufficiently long to effect perfect clarification. Above this is another swinging door, 6 inches deep, which retains all the scum and fecula, and allows it to pass off mechanically. The juice will, in one minute after leaving the canes, be brought to 200° Fahrenheit. Thus you save fuel, accelerate sugar making—you are certain of having clear juice, and what is more, it will remain sweet over 24 hours; all this can be effected by the waste steam of any sugar mill engine, and have abundance of caloric to spare, even should you make 20 hogsheads of sugar daily.

The settling cisterns are a large number of receiving boxes, such as are now used in all sugar-houses—the juice leaves them as clear as sherry wine.

Now I will proceed to describe the ne plus ultra, "the double flue pneumatic kettle." This pan is very much like a common double flue steam boiler, such as are used on the river steamboats, with this exception, it is open at the top, &c. It is 22 feet long, 5 feet in depth, and seven feet in width. Its two flues, each 14 inches in diameter, pass through its entire length. It is provided with flue caps, saul and chimney. It can be set in one week by any bricklayer. When it is set up with a kneller tube and blowing apparatus, its cost will not exceed the cost of a set of common kettles. The bagasse, or one cord of wood to the hogshead of sugar, is ample. It will throw off four hogsheads of sugar every three hours, and as the strike is made by means of a cock, one hand is sufficient for its management. Some idea of difficulties may present themselves to your readers, such as caromelization, carbonation, &c. &c. I assure all such that nothing of the kind can occur. And what is more, the use of the pneumaticus causes it to evaporate fast, and to boil at 180° of Fahrenheit.

In the language of an enterprising and talented sugar planter, this process is bound to revolutionize the sugar manufacturing of Louisiana, as a large crop can be taken off in the same length of time by this plan, and with less outlay, and the same number of hands, than a small one can by the old kettle process, and with so much less wood. You need only run the apparatus at night, and have all the hands in the field during the day, except carrier hands and the engineer, who will be preparing the juice during the afternoon for the night's run. It will make regular sugar, and even fine sugar, from frosted canes. Any gentleman who cannot exactly comprehend this prosy epistle, has but to ask for further explanations, and they will be cheerfully given by yours, truly,

W.M. F. WILKINS,
Engineer and Sugar Maker.

Opelousas, 6th January, 1852.

2.—THE PREMIUM COTTONS—MACON FAIR.

It will be seen by the report of the proceedings at the great Agricultural Fair held in this city last week, that the exhibition of fine cottons was highly creditable. In addition to the premiums offered by the Association, it will be recollect that the Warehousemen and Cotton Brokers offered three splendid Silver Pitchers for the best specimen of lots of cotton, consisting of twenty bales, &c. The first prize, worth one hundred dollars, was awarded to Dr. William Terrell, of Hancock. The second prize, worth fifty dollars, was given to Samuel Dinkins, Esq., of Houston; and the third prize, worth thirty dollars, was awarded to Dr. Charles Thompson, of Macon. Dr. Terrell also obtained the first prize from the Association; Dr. Thompson the second, and Mr. Dinkins the third. Mr. Walker, of Pulaski, was awarded the first prize for the best lot of ten bales, &c.

These cottons, and, in fact, all those exhibited upon the grounds, were not only very superior in quality, but were so admirably handled, as to require the most careful scrutiny of the experienced gentlemen composing the committee, to enable them to arrive at a correct and satisfactory conclusion. Fifty bales of them, we understand, were promptly purchased by Messrs. Charles Day & Co., at ten cents, being an advance of several cents upon the ruling prices in the city. The purchasers propose to exhibit these cottons in Savannah and New-York, and will then ship them to Liverpool. Coming, as they will, from the centre of the great cotton region, and having received the highest premiums at the great Central Southern Exhibition, we have no doubt they will command very high prices on the other side of the water. They are at present all stored at the fire proof warehouse of Thomas Hardeman, Esq., where they will be allowed to remain for a few days. The samples can be seen at the counting-room of Messrs. Day & Co.

3.—FALSE PACKING OF COTTON.

We mentioned some time since that the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, and Commercial Association, and the American Chamber of Commerce of Liverpool, had appointed committees to draw up regulations relative to the return of falsely packed cotton. We perceive from the advices brought by the *Humboldt*, that the following rules in reference thereto have been adopted.

1. That cotton returned as falsely or irregularly packed, be paid for at the price which the cotton, if regularly packed, would be worth on the day on which it would be received back at Liverpool.
2. That no allowances for expenses to transmit beyond the limits of Great Britain, be made on returned cotton.
3. That all claims for falsely or irregularly packed cotton be accompanied by the declaration of the planter's mark or certificate, where there is any such mark; and, if required, the entire canvass in which the cotton was packed, to be returned.

A fourth proposal by the Liverpool Committee, to reduce the time within which cotton could be returned as falsely packed from twelve to six months, was rejected by the Manchester deputation.

4.—TARE ON SUGAR HOGSHEADS.

Some months ago the wholesale grocers of Cincinnati held a meeting, in which they remonstrated against the tare of 10 per cent. on sugar hogsheads, as altogether inadequate, and recommend instead, a tare of 12 per cent. In the recommendation, the grocers of New-Orleans concur. As this is a matter which involves the value of 5000 hogsheads of sugar at least to the State of Louisiana, and proposes to trench upon principles which are as old as the crop itself, it cannot be wondered at that planters are manifesting pointed and strong disapprobation. Among the resolutions which have been passed in the different parishes of the state by the planters, we extract the following, which are a fair specimen of the general tone and spirit. We trust that the Chamber of Commerce will proceed advisedly in this matter, since it is likely they will be introduced as party.

"Whereas various experiments, recently made by members of this assembly, prove evidently that the conventional tare of 10 per cent., as actually established, far from falling short of the real tare of common sized hogsheads, exceeds it, on

the contrary, by several pounds; whereas said tare causes to the sugar planter a loss which is still increased by the mode of weighing generally followed by brokers; and whereas the proposition made by merchants of Cincinnati and New-Orleans, to raise the said tare to 12 per cent., is not only unjust, but detrimental to the sugar industry of Louisiana; therefore,

Resolved, That the sugar planters of this parish are of the opinion, that the actual tare of 10 per cent. should be maintained, although it is far from being to their advantage, and that they protest most solemnly against any increase of said tare.

Resolved, That rather than submit to the exaction of the merchants of Cincinnati and New-Orleans, they would prefer acting as western dealers do with their produce, and take their hogsheads themselves, in order to obtain thereby the real weight of each hogshead.

Resolved, That the present mode of weighing our molasses has caused us, for years past, a positive loss of at least half a pound per gallon, and that it would be more equitable that molasses, when weighed, should be sold by the pound, and not by the gallon.

Resolved, That the sugar planters of every parish in this state are hereby invited to meet together with the shortest delay, and protest against the resolutions passed at Cincinnati and New-Orleans by certain sugar dealers, setting the tare at 12 per cent.

5.—INDIA COTTON.

The question of an Indian supply of cotton has, for a long series of years, been discussed with no very great success. The fact appears to be, that the quantity obtained thence has been gradually on the decrease; but those years in which high prices prevailed, through short productions in the article, a stimulus was given to shipments from India, by diverting the cotton from the China market, and inducing greater cultivation. The import of India cotton into the United Kingdom, and the export price in the United States for corresponding years, were as follows:

	Import from India.	Average of prices in the United States.
1847.....	221,959.....	10½
1848.....	227,572.....	7½
1849.....	132,079.....	6½
1850.....	70,838.....	11½
1851.....	118,872.....	12½

The superior quality of United States cotton always enables it to command a higher price (at reduced rates) than the Indian commands; it affords material for all English yarns under twenty, and this may be taken as 50 per cent. of the manufacture. But whenever that price becomes exorbitant, a great stimulus is given to the consumption of the India articles, and a higher price never fails to bring out considerable quantities. The English official tables show the following receipts of cotton to the United Kingdom for two years.

IMPORT OF RAW COTTON INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.			
From	1850.	1851.	Increase.
United States.....	634,504,050.....	493,153,112.....	141,350,938
India.....	70,838,515.....	118,872,742.....	43,034,227
West Indies.....	944,307.....	228,913.....	716,594
Egypt, &c.....	17,369,843.....	18,931,414.....	1,561,571
Brazil.....	30,738,133.....	30,229,982.....	508,151
Other places.....	1,074,164.....	2,090,698.....	1,016,534
Total lbs.....	755,469,012.....	663,576,861.....	142,505,683
			50,612,332

The average export value of cotton in the United States, for 1849, was 6.4 cents, and for 1850, 11.3, a rise of 80 per cent. This drew from India 70 per cent. more than the usual supply; and the fact presented itself that, at an average of 11 cents, India can supply, at call, 25 per cent. as much cotton as the United States.

For many years the low prices of cotton have gradually discouraged the India production, but occasionally high prices impart a new stimulus to the cultivation

in that region, and American cottons feel the reaction. The late accounts from France show that cotton of United States description may be raised very advantageously in the colony of Algiers.

In the United States, little or no India cotton is used; but the latter article, of southern growth, enters into all our cotton fabrics, and the proportion of the crop consumed in the United States, increases. Thus, assuming that consumption in the South and West, for the past five years, has been 350,000 bales, then the crops and United States consumption for two periods of five years, will be as follows :

	U. S. Consumption.
Crop—Bales.	Bales.
1841-'42.....	1,951,100
1847-'51.....	2,719,400
Total bales.....	719,000..... 768,300

Thus establishing the fact, that home consumption increases faster than the production, pointing to the speedy control of the value of the crop by the home market. This is more particularly the case, since the export of goods in rivalry with that of Great Britain is now so rapidly swelling in magnitude.

6.—THE DEAN COTTON.

The readers of the "News" will recollect an article on this new species of cotton, published some four or five months ago. In the sales of the past week we notice seven bales of this cotton at ten and a half cents. Upon inquiry of Mr. John Dean, (by whom this cotton was introduced four years ago with only ten seed,) we learn that it is now raised by some six or eight planters in this state. Mr. Dean himself has raised about fifty bales this year; and his brothers, Mr. Aylott Dean and Mr. Geo. Dean, have raised, the former about one hundred bales, and the latter fifty bales, all in Montgomery county, Texas. Mr. George Stonum, of Grimes county, has raised about one hundred and twenty-five bales this season. All who have tried this cotton, find it to possess such superior advantages, that they now plant no other. In July last, a letter from a merchant in Boston says this cotton was then worth eighteen cents a pound in that market. Mr. Dean sold the last of his present crop, which was of an inferior quality, in September, at thirteen and a half cents in the market at Boston. A sufficient trial has now been had of this cotton to determine its superiority beyond all doubt. It has been sold in Liverpool as well as in several markets of the United States, and has uniformly commanded a price of full thirty or thirty-five per cent. more than could be had for the ordinary cotton. Last year, when cotton commanded a higher price, sixty bales of this were sold in Boston for twenty-four cents a pound. A manufacturing house of Massachusetts, by whom this cotton has been thoroughly tested, has sent an agent to the state, who is now in the interior endeavoring to buy all he can find. The staple of this cotton is said to resemble that of Sea Island, and the fabric made of it is probably often mistaken for Sea Island. This cotton possesses the following advantages in addition to its superior quality : The product per acre is full as much or more; the bolls are larger, each boll having five divisions, while other cotton has but four; the quantity of cotton in each boll is more in proportion to its superior size; a hand can pick about one-third more of it in the same time. This last advantage is one of great importance, and has been fully established, as we learn, by fair experiment. This is owing to the larger amount of cotton to the boll, and to the greater length of the staple, making it quicker to be handled by the picker. There is a great demand for the seed of this cotton, which will probably supersede the ordinary kind throughout the state. Mr. Dean has now only a few sacks of the seed here for sale.

7.—THE DATE TREE AT THE SOUTH.

This interesting tree is thus treated by a writer in the *Charleston Mercury*, whom we take to be Dr. Bachman, the distinguished naturalist :—

MESSRS. EDITORS :—The interesting communication from your correspondent, "G. P. E.," informing us of his success in producing fruit from the Date Tree,

and your favorable notice of the only instance that has come to my knowledge of the ripening of this far-famed fruit in our state, together with your kindness in entrusting me with those specimens, induce me to offer a few additional items of information, which may assist those who are not Botanists, in unraveling the difficulties which have been presented in accounting for the production of the fruit in the absence of the staminate or male tree.

The Date Tree is admitted by all Botanists, I think, to be Dioecious, viz: the staminate or male flowers growing on one tree, and the pistillate or female flowers on another. When these are near each other at the time of flowering, and the season is favorable, perfect fruit is produced, and the seeds will germinate. When, however, there is only a pistillate or female tree, it will produce fruit that is equally palatable to the taste, but the seeds being not fertilized, will be barren. We are aware that our common poultry, and indeed all birds, as well as fishes, and even insects, will produce and lay eggs, although they have been entirely removed from their males. So also in fruits, of which our common fig affords a familiar instance. The various varieties of this delicious fruit have been produced by seeds in the warmer portions of the Eastern Continent. The female tree has only been imported; hence, although it produces luscious fruit, its seeds never germinate, and we have to resort to layers and cuttings to propagate the varieties.

If we admit these premises to be in accordance with nature, we may be able to arrive at a correct conclusion in reference to the peculiarities in the recent production of the fruit of the Date tree, which was sent to you by your correspondent. The tree was planted fifty years ago, and bore fruit in 1834, but being without a male could not have borne seeds that would have germinated—hence the young shoots that sprung up in the following spring could not have been produced from the seeds, but from the roots, as is the case with the Plantain, Banana, and other trees, or from the side, as in Indian corn.

Through the kindness of Henry W. De Saussure, Esq., I was favored with an opportunity during the month of May last, of examining for the first time the blossom of the Date tree. It was that of the male, and possessed three stamens, which places it in the class and order Ditecia triandria. It was composed of a single sheath of brilliant hue, and was to me one of the most interesting flowers I had ever examined. The Date is said by Botanists, occasionally, but very rarely, to produce male as well as female blossoms on the same stem. This phenomenon is exhibited in a few other species of Dioecious plants—of which our Ailanthus glandulosa, or Tree of Heaven, as it is called in Europe, is a rare instance.

Our climate is, I fear, too cold for the successful propagation of the Date. In the southern parts of Florida, and in Texas near the Rio Grande, and especially in South California, it will most probably succeed much better than with us. A few trees have existed in the neighborhood of my residence for nearly forty years: they have, however, been cut off by frosts at long and irregular intervals, and have in no instance produced either fruit or blossoms. It is not impossible, although very difficult, to naturalize an intertropical fruit to a somewhat colder climate. This has to some extent been effected in the orange tree and sugar cane. In this case, however, it is necessary that the constitution of the plants be changed by the production of varieties from seeds that have come to maturity in these colder climates. Now, as your correspondent from Hilton Head has been so successful with one of the sexes, and my friend on Sullivan's Island with the other, it would be interesting if they could unite their stock, so that Carolina could boast of producing native Dates from native seeds. I presume you, or your correspondent, must have intended to indulge in a little pleasantry on New Year's day, when you induced us to speculate on the possibility of looking to Africa for the fertilizing dust to impregnate a Date tree on Hilton Head—or the equally improbable miracle that our noble Palmetto had sought an unnatural alliance with the Date.

8.—A SOUTHERN FARM—LOUISIANA.

The Troy plantation (H. W. Huntingdon's) has made this year, under the management of M. B. Hamilton, who worked only 36 hands, the large crop of 350 bales of cotton, already gathered; and 150 yet in the field to pick, and about 6000 bushels of corn. This tells well for our Black and Little River lands, when well managed.

C. D.

People must not infer from the above that these 36 hands were either worked twelve and fourteen hours out of the twenty-four, like eastern operatives, or that they were confined to the cultivation of cotton and corn, to the neglect of everything else.

From our knowledge of Col. Huntingdon we will present a short sketch of his plantation operations, and leave it to our friends of the Advocate to say whether it be accurate or not. His negroes are well housed and well fed. They receive three full suits of well-made and substantial clothing a year, including a hat, a blanket, and often two pair of shoes. At night they have rousing log fires, and sleep on comfortable mattresses and bedsteads.

They receive 3½ or four lbs. mess pork or bacon, per week, a peck or more of finely-ground meal; besides, in their season, peas, potatoes, turnips, and greens in profusion. They get molasses very often, and milk almost every day—frequently flour, coffee and sugar; and the sick, the aged, and the young, are invariably doctored, nursed, and fed like members of the family. They go to work at daylight, stop an hour for breakfast, one hour in winter, and three in summer for dinner, and leave the fields at dark. They have nothing to do afterwards but to eat their suppers and go to sleep—no night work—no care for the morrow.

Half of every Saturday is allowed them to wash their clothes; for all are required to appear clean and tidy every Sunday morning. A piece of land, from half an acre to two acres, is allowed to each grown hand to grow corn and roots on private account; and they raise poultry *ad libitum*. These are either bought by the master, at market prices, or sold, by his permission, to the new settlers, or in the villages; and some of these negroes often realize thus \$100, or more, every season.

The Sabbath is sacredly observed as a day of rest; and divine services are either performed on the premises by a colored preacher, or the slaves are allowed to attend the neighboring churches.

They have all the holidays—at Christmas a week, including New Year's day; and then, and once or twice besides during the year, a "big dinner," or festival, is given to all hands on the plantation. Visit their cabins on Sunday, and you will find every thing neat and clean—their tables set out, covered with a white cloth, and very often surrounded by visitors from the adjacent plantations, enjoying their coffee, bacon and eggs, fried chicken and batter cakes.

Col. Huntingdon's negroes never run away, and corporal punishments are rarely inflicted. All the abolitionists in the world could not persuade them to quit their old master or his family. He cultivates the domestic relations among them—encourages them to marry—registers the births of their children—and when they die, buries them with funeral ceremonies, he and his whole family following them to the grave.

The plantation is in apple-pie order. There are shelters for the stock, good fences, good fruit, plenty of vegetables, an abundant dairy, a table spread with delicacies, dispensed with a beautiful and graceful hospitality, and flowers and shrubbery throwing their fragrance over all.

Besides this, the Colonel has his hunter and his fisherman, his carpenter and blacksmith; and if you ask his worthy overseer, he will tell you that four or five of these thirty-six negroes were often taken from the field by the Colonel, very much to his annoyance, for some fancy operation, a boat-building job, or something of that sort; for the Colonel is a man of science, believes somewhat in book-farming, and always makes the heaviest crops when he leaves things generally to his overseer, especially if he be such a one as he has now got.

But enough of this. Our object is merely to show how happy our slaves are here—how prolific our soil is, and how rich the returns that await industry and skill, superintended by benevolence and kindness.—*N. O. Courier.*

9.—AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATES.	Acres of land in forest, measured and mapped.	Value of live stock.	Doubtless of wheat.	Cultivation of fields.	Value of home made manufactures.	
					Value of lumber.	Value of logs.
Maine.....	2,019,583	\$9,831,468	307,980	1,741,715	—	\$51,000,968
New Hampshire	2,251,382	8,314,950	11,777,901	185,628	8,871,901	393,415
Vermon.....	9,322,923	1,054,000	11,924,748	483,666	1,572,670	201,589
Massachusetts.....	2,197,934	3,173,809	9,619,964	29,764	1,025,776	61,076
Rhode Island.....	677,672	4,743,630	50	510,135	2,326,167	29,764
Connecticut.....	1,734,377	2,043,036	7,388,986	40,167	1,986,462	3,196,524
Long Island.....	1,285,077	27,127,563	74,672,356	13,073,357	17,934,808	535,854
New York.....	1,770,357	4,967,184	16,090,264	1,982,216	8,605,396	56,698
New Jersey.....	619,631	1,931,983	42,166,711	15,482,181	19,707,702	857,619
Pennsylvania.....	594,364	4,471,385	1,783,360	4,494,680	2,888,866	5,886
Delaware.....	8,797,865	2,463,449	1,997,634	11,000,631	21,191,281	4,020,327
Maryland.....	17,083	4,020,761	7,370,573	17,370,573	11,000,631	2,019,583
District of Columbia.....	10,150,280	33,667,362	14,516,950	25,538,582	15,000,000	1,000,000
Virginia.....	5,443,137	4,056,700	17,857,168	2,147,898	19,256,999	12,500,000
North Carolina.....	4,074,855	4,183,700	17,900,015	16,080,278	16,922,308	12,724,308
South Carolina.....	3,329,423	5,591,050	25,757,408	1,635,784	30,428,540	4,820,123
Tennessee.....	4,387,068	5,066,814	31,585,966	9,045,986	1,993,462	1,225,000
Alabama.....	3,489,630	5,759,734	20,330,563	215,181	21,896,154	48,349
Mississippi.....	1,367,988	1,296,310	10,983,500	84	19,051,051	2,000,000
Arkansas.....	635,913	1,054,941	6,728,254	40,446	5,796,735	2,000,000
Louisiana.....	780,333	1,054,941	20,154,183	168,902	8,637,996	60,770
Oklahoma.....	5,087,057	5,351,178	26,137,563	30,144,380	92,161	6,957
Texas.....	6,686,633	5,688,000	9,204,056	1,630,470	35,962,783	55,782,750
Kansas.....	9,730,630	12,766,183	43,726,167	14,987,056	31,847,966	16,600
Michigan.....	1,923,352	7,481,171	20,816,439	4,918,706	50,601,215	8,225
Wisconsin.....	5,019,882	7,481,722	22,386,965	6,625,474	52,887,751	6,034
Iowa.....	5,114,041	5,294,882	24,817,954	9,433,965	37,179,283	8,444,129
Pennsylvani.....	9,911,422	3,977,449	19,748,672	9,943,860	37,000,364	17,038,024
Illinois.....	814,173	1,262,978	3,602,769	1,482,074	8,475,092	2,012
Indiana.....	1,011,768	7,071,047	4,594,717	2,249,208	4,983,378	763
Michigan.....	34,312	88,593	3,460,725	98,282,625	90,002,882	1,000
Minnesota.....	5,035	153,357	10,835,859	3,4223	16,665	4,800
Oregon.....	901,206	78,495	1,875,980	228,826	8,928	2,000
Washington.....	15,219	103,403	533,951	103,441	9,144	392
New Mexico.....	112,048,000	151,890,273	553,705,285	104,700,290	501,586,053	109,538,494
Total.....	112,048,000	151,890,273	553,705,285	104,700,290	501,586,053	109,538,494

10.—SUGAR TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Imports, Exports, Stocks, and Estimated Consumption, of Raw, Clayed, &c., for the year ending December 31, 1851, exclusive of California and Oregon.

NEW-YORK.	Hdbs.	Tcs.	Bbls.	Boxes.	Bags.	Cas.	Value, Jan. 1, 1852.	1851.
Received from Cuba.....	94070	1548	5079	198387	813	—	* 4 a 6	* 4 a 6 1
" " Porto Rico.....	29373	64	2020	—	—	—	† 4 1 a 7	† 5 1 a 8 1
" " St. Croix.....	1236	—	38	—	—	—	3 1 a 5 1	5 1 a 6 1
" " Brazil.....	—	—	565	—	43791	303	5 1 a 6 1	—
" " Manilla.....	—	—	—	—	108257	—	4 a 6	—
" " Surinam.....	817	3	133	—	—	—	4 1 a 4 1	—
" " Nassau, N. P.....	136	23	103	—	—	—	—	—
" " Halifax.....	—	—	—	—	2090	—	—	—
" " St. John, N. B.....	69	—	17	—	—	—	—	—
" " Other for'n ports.....	317	10	302	24	—	—	—	—
Total receipts of foreign.....	126019	1648	8257	188411	154954	303	—	—
Received from Texas.....	1570	—	235	102	—	—	—	—
" " Louisiana.....	15945	45	326	—	—	—	3 1 a 5 1	5 1 a 6 1
" " Other coastwise.....	3753	13	35920	3384	13733	—	—	—
Total supply.....	147397	1706	44738	191897	168687	303	—	—
Exp'd 712 hds., ship'd to Ca'da 217	929	81	20	3091	—	—	—	—
Add stock, January 1, 1851.....	146369	1625	44718	188806	168687	303	—	—
Total supply.....	147970	1625	44718	197641	172485	303	—	—
Deduct stock, January 1, 1852.....	7582	—	—	13512	26105	303	* Muscovado. † Box.	Same time last year, 104,071 tons—of which foreign, imported direct, 65,089 tons.
Taken for cons'ption from this port.....	140388	1625	44718	184129	146380	—	—	—

Or, about 132,832 tons—of which foreign, imported direct, 120,599. Same time last
year, 104,071 tons—of which foreign, imported direct, 65,089 tons.

Received at New-York, from foreign and coastwise ports, from 1st January to 31st December.					Stock in New-York, 1st January.		
	Hdbs.	Tierces.	Barrels.	Boxes.	Hdbs.	Boxes.	Bags.
1851..	147298..	1706	44738..	191897..	168687	1859	7589
1850..	116848..	1311	35019	132814..	61260	1851	1601
1849..	128417..	1404	21105	63057	93938	1850	3213
1848..	108703..	2258	19946	190354..	90088	1849	4549
1847..	87861..	779	17765	144898..	24255	1848	2262
1846..	67238..	577	7242	85744..	37652	1847	1279
1845..	88268..	1626	17039	22958..	38771	1846	1297
1844..	62881..	513	11075	106918..	35689	—	—
1843..	59003..	331	9896..	50549..	38417	—	—
1842..	54495..	75	13048..	58012..	60553	—	—

Most of the barrels received here from coastwise ports is refined sugar.

Receipts of Foreign, from 1st January, 1851, to 31st December, 1851.					Stock in New-York, 1st January.			
	Hdbs.	Tcs.	Bbls.	Boxes.	Hdbs.	Boxes.	Bags.	Cases.
At New-York.....	—	—	—	—	127667	8257	188411	154954 303
Boston.....	—	—	—	—	11571	1233	82906	88126 —
Philadelphia.....	—	—	—	—	27648	5084	34971	53907 —
Baltimore.....	—	—	—	—	17044	2542	3597	8310 —
New-Orleans.....	—	—	—	—	350	—	28619	— 1683 —
Other ports.....	—	—	—	—	6168	321	11071	5320 —
Total Receipts in the United States.....	—	—	190448	—	17427	349575	310617	1986
Add Stock at all the ports, January 1, 1851.....	—	—	3525	—	20261	—	7102	—
Total supply.....	—	—	190493	—	17427	369836	317719	1986
Deduct Export from all the ports, in 1851.....	—	—	2951	2904	6542	1344	—	—
—	—	—	194092	—	14523	363294	316375	1986
Deduct Stock at all the ports, January 1, 1852.....	—	—	9367	—	31446	27425	—	303
Total consumption of foreign	—	—	181655	14523 331848	288930	—	—	1683

Or, about.....	tons.	201403
Add crop of 1850-'51, Louisiana, Texas, &c., the bulk of which came to market in 1851, and assuming the stock 1st January each year to be equal.....		190331
Would make the total consumption in the United States, from January 1, 1851, to December 31, 1851.....		321736
Consumption of foreign in 1850.....		160210
Add crop of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, &c., 1849-'50.....		141592
Would make the total consumption.....		301802
Excess in 1851.....		19934

STOCK 1ST JANUARY.

PORTS.	1852.				1851.		
	Hhds.	Boxes.	Bags.	Cases.	Hhds.	Boxes.	Bags.
At New-York.....	6141	13512	26105	303	1213	8835	3790
Boston.....	774	10013	—	—	400	7514	3054
Philadelphia.....	1852	7541	1320	—	1287	2900	250
Baltimore.....	250	—	—	—	600	—	—
N. Orleans.....	—	—	—	—	—	700	—
Other ports.....	350	400	—	—	425	312	—
Total stock.....	9367	31466	27425	303	3525	20261	7105

The stock of all kinds at this port, 1st January, 1852, was 8,728 tons, against 2,917 tons last year; and the stock of foreign at all the ports, 1st January, 1852, was 13,659 tons against 6,522 tons, 1st January, 1851.

The above statement we believe to be a correct exhibit of the quantity of raw, clayed &c., sugar, taken from the ports, for consumption in the country. It will be observed, we do not include the receipts of European refined sugar, being unable to obtain any reliable data for them, and we do not embrace in our exports any foreign or domestic refined sugar, having confined ourselves wholly to the descriptions noticed. The quantity of sugar made here from molasses is large, and the production of the maple tree the last season is estimated at 17,500 tons.

For the following interesting statistics relative to the production of sugar in this country from the cane and from the maple tree, taken from the United States Marshal's returns of the Seventh Census, for the year ending June 1, 1850, we are indebted to Joseph C. G. Kennedy, Esq., Superintendent of Census, Washington, D. C.

<i>Cane Sugar, Hdss.</i>	<i>Maple Sugar, Lbs.</i>	<i>Cane Sugar, Hdss.</i>	<i>Maple Sugar Lbs.</i>
Maine.....	87541	Mississippi.....	2784..... 110
Missouri.....	171943	Texas.....	7017..... —
Maryland.....	47740	Arkansas.....	—..... 8829
Alabama.....	28..... 473	Tennessee.....	—..... 159886
New-Hampshire.	1292429	Ohio.....	—..... 452164
Vermont.....	5159641	Michigan.....	—..... 2423897
Massachusetts.....	768596	Indiana.....	—..... 2921634
Connecticut.....	37781	Illinois.....	—..... 246078
New-York.....	10310764	Iowa.....	—..... 31040
New-Jersey.....	5886	Louisiana.....	—..... 262486
Pennsylvania.....	3178373	Kentucky.....	—..... 386233
Virginia.....	1233905	Wisconsin.....	—..... 661965
North Carolina.....	27448	Minnesota Ter.ry.	—..... 2950
South Carolina.....	150..... 200	Total.....	272974..... 3367704
Georgia.....	1373..... 30		
Florida.....	17414..... —		

11—THE RICE PLANT.

In answer to various inquiries made to us upon the subject of rice, we publish the following letter from Col. Allston, an able rice planter of South Carolina, to whom we had written upon the subject.

Charleston, 21st Jan., 1852.

DEAR SIR.—By the mail which conveys this, I transmit you a copy of Col. J. J. Ward's report on the cultivation of the rice crop, from which your correspondent, whose name has escaped me, (his letter being misplaced in Columbia,) may derive some notions useful to him in his proposed essay at rice-planting.

I have no experience of "inland planting" myself. In the desire to serve your friend, I applied to several gentlemen, habitually cultivating inland swamp for the systems practised by them respectively. I have to regret that none of them, as yet, have found it convenient, or thought proper, to favor me, by keeping to their promises.

Information is seldom obtained from the planters in any other way than by conversation. I desired to be more accurate by furnishing their own statements; but as the season is advancing, I will not longer withhold the impression as to their mode of culture, made on my mind by their several verbal communications.

It is chiefly this, that they all approach as near, and practice as closely, as circumstances will permit, the systems most approved among the planters on Tidewater swamp.

Where the water flows or ebbs, and there is consequently a command of water, the system is such in the main, as described in my memoir,* and also recently and in detail, by my friend, Col. Ward, in the report I send you.

As your correspondent will not have the benefit of such command of water, but must use it, I presume, from a "reserve," I will venture to indicate what would be my own course under similar circumstances.

I should select new land, as it is free from grass, and grass is the greatest enemy to rice in inland swamp; water is the only means by which it can be effectually subdued year by year, and the inland planter has not the necessary command of water.

After clearing the land, as well as one would for any other crop—or in case of land already cleared, after plowing it up early for the frost to act upon it, and draining it well, with drains (18 inches by 3 feet) 75 feet apart; then, when about to plant, leveling the surface with the harrow and the hoe, I would trench it with a very narrow hoe, placing the trenches at the distance of 12 inches one from the other, and sow the rice, carefully, in a "string," i. e., as thin (but regular) as possible; cover it as other seed, and if it be not likely to have rain upon it in a day or two, I would flow it just to cover the land for six days; but if rain be plenty, I would not flow until the plant is seen, here and there, generally coming through the earth; (this, in fine weather, will be seen in 12 to 15 days;) the birds will then be very troublesome, if uncovered with water, destroying a great deal. The land should then be covered with water ("point flow") 6 inches deep, if old land. In case of new land, where there is no grass, I would flow only deep enough to cover the rice from birds at first, then gradually as the plant grew stronger and taller, raise the water up to 6 inches generally: In case the planter is not certain of having water enough to keep a flow of 40 days (to help kill the young grass) and hold on until the plant, which will be stretched and weakened by it, is strong enough to stand up. When the water shall be drawn off (it will be so in *April* in 40 days, in *May* some 30 to 35), I would then send in hands and pick out all the long grass which may be observed in the trenches with the rice plants; (these the hoe cannot reach, and they will only come up by the root when the earth is soft with water;) then draw the water off gradually. The plant is then putting out new roots. Whilst they are still short, and as soon as the land is dry, say in 8 days, hoe it deep with hoes not wider than 4½ inches, (4 is better,) the new roots will easily penetrate the broken soil, and the plants will flourish. In 20 to 16 days more, hoe it again, but very light, so as to level the uneven surface and to cut every spear of grass, picking out by hand what the hoe cannot reach. Thus

* Published in Vol. 1 of the Review.

effectually cleaned, the rice may be "laid by" in 2 or 3 days; it will then be "jointing," or nearly so. The water should now (after at least 30 days of dry growth for April rice) be put on again full six inches, until the head shoots out; then it may be raised higher with impunity, and will be a stay to the tall plant in times of heavy wind. When the plant is in bloom, it should, by no means, be disturbed for any purpose.

In 60 days after jointing, the grain is generally ripe for the sickle—the weather or season may have the effect to retard or advance it a day or two: the water should then be drawn off, and the reapers set to work. In Carolina, the sickle, or "reap hook," is used, with which each hand will cut a half acre in the day, then tie in sheaves, and stock in the field what was cut the day before.

The task with us is to cut $\frac{1}{4}$ of an acre early in the morning; then, when the dew is off, tie and carry to the barn-yard the $\frac{1}{4}$ of an acre which was cut the day before, supposing the sun to have been shining duly.

I think that in inland it would be better also to give the like task, especially the first year, viz: cut $\frac{1}{4}$ an acre, tie, ("bind") and carry $\frac{1}{4}$, or stock it in the field, if dry, so as to get done handling the rice before the night dews wet it.

The threshing out is laborious; this, as well as the pounding or cleaning, is done here by machinery, some account of which may be found in my memoir, and, also, in the pamphlet already referred to. This machinery is expensive—the first will cost from \$3000 to \$7000—the other, from \$10,000 to \$18,000. The machinists here could furnish particulars.

In the hope your friend may derive advantage from these hints, which I am aware, are imperfect,

I am, very respectfully,

RORT. F. W. ALLSTON.

N. B.—From the "point flow" he will be good enough to pursue, as nearly as he can, the method described by J. J. Ward, in his report from where it is marked, taking care to substitute a 5 inch hoe for his "six inch."

12.—REPORT ON RICE CULTURE.

Your Committee beg leave to report, what in their opinion, is the best mode of cultivating rice.

It is scarcely necessary to observe that the land should be in good order; that is, that the banks and trunks should be in such condition as to keep the water within or without the fields, as circumstances may render necessary; the drains ought to be thirty-seven and a half feet apart, and at least three feet deep and eighteen inches wide; the size of the fields to be determined to a great extent by the force employed; with a strong force they can be of much larger dimensions than with a smaller. It is evidently important that every part of the field should be as nearly as possible in the same condition, as regards hoeing, &c., when the water is put on: otherwise, from the different state of the plant, one portion would require different treatment from another, which of course is impossible. Perhaps inattention in this respect has produced more mischief than might at first sight appear. During the winter the land ought to be well turned, either by the plow or hoe. As planting time approaches, the land should be well mashed and laid off in bold trenches, with a four inch "trenching hoe," thirteen inches from centre to centre; the seed is to be carefully sowed at the rate of from two and a half to three bushels the acre, according to the order the land may be in; the greater quantity to be used when it is not in the best state of preparation. There are different opinions on the subject of covering the seed; on low and gummy lands, the "open planting" is the best; but when the soil is well prepared, a careful covering is to be preferred. The sprout water is then put on, and remains until the grain "pips," which will take place according to the weather, &c., in from three to six days; the water is then taken off, and the land kept as dry as possible, until you can see the rice the whole length of a row across the bed, coming out in fine spires, which is frequently called the "needle state;" the point flow is then put on and retained from three to nine days, or as long as it can be kept on without weakening the plant so much as to cause it to fall when the water is taken from it. This is especially important, as the grass being young is more effectually destroyed than at any later stage of the crop. As soon as the rice is strong enough, which will depend on circumstances,, a light

hoeing should be given it, with a six inch "rice hoe." About twelve days after this first hoeing, it should be well stirred with the "six inch hoe" again, and allow two or three days (should the weather be dry) for the sun to kill the grass disturbed by the hoe. "The long water" is then put on, and the rice to be overtapped for three or four days; the trash which will float up must be carefully raked on the banks. By this deep flow not only is the trash removed, but the insects with which the rice is infested, are for the time completely destroyed. The water is then gradually slackened to about six inches deep on the general level. A notch must be made on the trunk or elsewhere, and the water kept as near the same level as can be, for from twelve to twenty-three days, according to the quality of the land; the heavy land requiring the longest water; (the water, however, should not be taken off on the fifteenth day, as from the state of the plant at that time it is apt to "fox.") The water is then to be gradually slackened off, to prevent the rice from falling in the low parts of the field, it being weak from the greater depth of the water; and this points out the great importance of bringing the surface of every field as nearly as may be to a level, as in the lower spots the rice is often materially injured, and in the high places the grass is not destroyed. When the water is off the surface, the trunks are to be thrown open, and the land again kept as dry as possible. During this flow, or rather about the time of slackening off, as what grass may have escaped the hoe will have grown rapidly, it is advisable to "turn" the hands in and pull it out. As soon as the land is sufficiently dry, it is to be dug as deep as practicable, with a four inch rice hoe, to enable the roots of the plant to spread with greater facility. In about twenty-two days after the "long water," the fourth and last hoeing should be given with a four inch hoe, and should be very light, merely to level the clods left from the digging and to destroy the young grass; particular care being taken not to injure or disturb the roots of the plant. A day or two after this hoeing, the "lay by" water should be put on, about the same depth, or perhaps a little deeper than the "long water" notch; lower or higher according to the growth of the rice. Care should be taken that when the rice begins to round, that the water should not get over the fork. It is to be noticed that as soon as the weaker portions of the rice gain sufficient strength, the water is to be run through the field every "tide," which should be regularly attended to until the crop is ready for the hook. When circumstances require or will admit of the "open planting," the seed ought to be well clayed before sowing. The water is then put gradually on, and kept on, until the rice is in the "green fork;" it is then dried for three days to allow the plant to take root, and then again flooded; the further treatment being the same as before stated for the "covered planting."

Respectfully, JOSHUA JOHN WARD, Chairman.

13.—BEST MODE OF CURING AND MILLING RICE.

To the President of the Winyah and All-Saints Agricultural Society.

The Committee to whom was referred the consideration of the "best mode of curing and milling rice," beg leave to report:

That almost every plantation has its own particular method of curing rice; so in almost every mill will be found something peculiar in the preparation and cleaning of rice. We may with reason suggest that the market is the true test of the best mode. The rice may be pronounced best cured and best milled, which makes the fairest show and commands the most attention in the market. To produce such rice, however, something more is requisite than curing and milling. The previous winter work should have been well placed on the soil. The whole system of planting must have been good. The seed should have been well selected, free from red-rice, and a full thin-skin grain; it should have been sown regular, and not too thick; then it should have been carefully cultivated, regarding the use of both the hoe and water. To all this, industry and attention are requisite. The attentive and observant planter who keeps a journal, will soon be taught by experience the best method. He will see that it is a mistake to suppose, that because rice is an aquatic plant, it will flourish in land which is kept in a sodden state; but on the contrary, that unless the land be well flooded, it should be well drained,

It is true that some of the best samples of rice are often produced from old lands, which yield no more than 25' and 30 bushels to the acre. But as it is the desire of every one engaged in planting to increase the quantity as well as to

improve the quality of his crop, it is taken for granted that the previous preparation of the soil has been duly attended to, (the last and least object of which is the surface,) and that the culture has been good throughout the season.

Curing.—The field then is to be dried some two or three days before the grains be *fully* ripe, and the rice cut forthwith, laying it, of an even thickness, on the stubble, the heads being clear of any water.

If the weather be fair, one day's sun is sufficient. Accordingly, after the dew is off, on the day after the rice is cut, it should be tied into sheaves and borne to the barn yard, and there stacked before the dew falls again, in ricks about seven feet wide, twenty feet long, and built up as high as a man can pile from a stool two feet high. Here it undergoes a heat which is supposed to mature and harden the grain. If, however, this process be not duly noticed; if the heat be too great and continue too long, (as it may, depending on the condition of the rice, and state of the weather,) the rice is said to be "mow-burned," and is injured. The greatest heat to which the grain can be subjected without injury, is deemed advisable. The rice will keep well enough in the ricks herein described, until threshed, but it is often transferred to large stacks after the harvest, for safe-keeping—stacks from 12 to 16 feet in diameter.

Milling.—After having been threshed, the rice should be rayed, i. e. the broken and imperfect grains separated from the full, the small and lighter from the large, &c.; so that the parcel of rice to be milled be made up of grains as nearly equal in length as practicable. The grinding is believed to be the most important part of the process; it is between the stones that the rice is most apt to break. Each grain revolving probably on its shortest axis, according with a well-tested principle of philosophy, the stones should be set in regard to their length.

From these stones, with every hull, if possible, broken, if not shelled off, the rice passes under the pestle. The proper degree of pounding can only be ascertained by the inspection of a practised eye. On being discharged from the mortar, the rice must be thoroughly separated by rolling screens and fans from the flour and broken grains. It then should be passed spirally, through the brushing screen, which revolves with great rapidity, (the longer the screen the better, provided the velocity be not diminished,) until it is delivered into the barrel, clean, bright and pearly, fully "prepared" and ready for market.

This whole process, which, in the main, must be known to every planter of any experience, is thus familiarly described; and, at the request of the Society, is herewith submitted, by

R. F. W. ALLSTON, Chairman.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCIAL DEPENDENCE OF THE SOUTH ON THE NORTH.

THERE is, probably, no country on the face of the earth, possessing more natural advantages for a large and extensive commerce, than the South—and yet, we have allowed those advantages to remain unimproved, and the immense profits to be derived therefrom, to be reaped by our more active and enterprising neighbors of the North. We produce the main supply of cotton for the world—the great artery through which the life-blood of commerce flows—besides which, rice, sugar, hemp, and many other articles out of which a commerce should arise, that would enrich every seaport at the South, and almost pave their streets with gold. Yet, how is it, that with all these vast resources for commerce within our grasp, our energies should so long have remained dormant, and our commercial cities mere depots for Northern enterprise. Tariffs may have had their influence, government legislation may have had some effect, but the main difficulty has been in our own supineness and lack of energy. Our merchants have been content, instead of boldly embarking in the field of commercial enterprise themselves, to be the factors or agents for Northern merchants. The enterprise of

Northern merchants penetrates every clime—their ships are found in the Polar seas, in the vast Pacific, on the broad Atlantic. They come back to our shores laden with rich stores from all quarters of the globe; silks and teas of China, coffee from Brazil, the manufactures of England, France, the spice of Sumatra, the gold of California; for almost every article of necessity and luxury we use from foreign countries, we are indebted to Northern enterprise, to which we annually pay a large tribute, the immense profits of which might accrue to ourselves, had we the enterprise and energy to enter the field. Will any man of sense pretend to say, that there is any action of the general government to prevent a merchant of Charleston, Savannah, or New-Orleans, from fitting out ships for the whaling business, importing teas from Canton, or coffee from Brazil? Are the duties on foreign goods any higher in Charleston than in New-York? Look at our foreign dry goods trade. Freights to Charleston are lower in Liverpool than to New-York. Exchange on Europe can be had at a lower rate in Charleston than New-York. No one will pretend to say that a New-York merchant's money will buy more goods in Manchester and Birmingham than a Charleston merchant's. Yet, how is it, that of the vast amount of foreign goods sold in Charleston, so few are imported direct? How is it, that annually our jobbers go to the North and buy their stocks of Northern importers? They cannot be so verdant as to suppose that these importers sell their goods without a profit. There has been no effort made to secure this trade. We have not, in Charleston, a single commission merchant for the sale of foreign dry goods. We have none to point out to the English, French, and German manufacturer, the advantages he might gain by shipping his surplus stocks to our market. We will venture to say, if houses with capital, knowledge of the business, and energy of character, would enter into this branch of business alone, they would reap a rich harvest. The trade of Charleston alone would support twenty such houses. Why is it that so large a portion of our country merchants seek their supplies in the Northern markets? It is because they know our jobbers buy their goods there, and they think they are paying two sets of profits.

One of the most certain laws of trade is, that men will buy where they can buy the cheapest; and as long as we allow Northern enterprise to monopolize the importing business of the country, so long will Southern merchants forsake their own seaports, and swarm in flocks annually, to make their purchases at the North. In the leading article of coffee, it is estimated, that 40 to 50,000 bags are annually sold in Charleston, and yet of this a very large portion is imported *via* the North. We are glad to say, within a few years past, public attention has some evidences that the dormant spirit of our merchants is awakening to their true interest. Our direct importations of foreign dry goods, hardware and crockery, are increasing, our West India business supplies the market fully with sugar and molasses. It is not an uncommon thing to see a cargo of Rio coffee imported direct, and we even hear of a cargo of gunny cloth on the way from Culeutta. This is but a small beginning. Much more remains to be done. Southern merchants must arouse themselves. Capitalists must come forward and help the cause. They must circulate their wealthy hoards, giving life and animation to trade, and reaping rich returns for themselves. They must not be content with locking up their means in bank and state stocks, for five and six per cent. interest. Such investments will do for old women and minor children. Men should always strive and work. It is this which gives life and impulse to mercantile enterprise at the North. Our merchants, if successful enough to make \$50,000 or \$100,000, retire from business, and invest their money in stocks or in a plantation. Where we leave off they begin. A merchant in New-York, when he has made \$100,000 or \$200,000, thinks he has just got capital enough to begin to do business. His ideas expand; he is no longer content with little things; he surveys the whole field of enterprise; he enters into competition with the great merchants of the world, and becomes a merchant prince. Large enterprises require large means, and by such alone can be achieved. Let us shake off our sluggish indifference, and awake to the splendid results which await us, if we have but the energy and the will to grapple for the rich prize within our reach. Let our merchants be no longer content to be mere peddlers, but become *merchants in deed as well as in name*.—*Southern Standard*.

2.—UNITED STATES TONNAGE.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—TONNAGE, &c., OF THE COUNTRY.

Statement, exhibiting the tonnage of the United States for a series of years; also, showing the comparative increase since the year 1815; and the proportion engaged in the foreign, whaling and coasting trade:

YEARS.	Registered tonnage.	Enroll'd & licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage.
1815.....	854294 76.....	513833 04.....	1368127 78
1838.....	822951 86.....	1173047 89.....	1995639 80
1839.....	834244 54.....	1262234 27.....	2096478 91
1840.....	899764 74.....	1280999 35.....	2180764 16
1841.....	845803 42.....	1184940 90.....	2130744 37
1842.....	975358 74.....	1117031 90.....	2090390 69
1843.....	1009305 01.....	1149297 62.....	2158601 93
1844.....	1068764 91.....	1911330 11.....	2280695 07
1845.....	1095173 44.....	1321829 57.....	2417002 06
1846.....	1131286 49.....	1431793 33.....	2562084 81
1847.....	12411312 92.....	1597732 80.....	2839045 77
1848.....	1360886 85.....	1793155 00.....	3154041 85
1849.....	1438941 53.....	1895073 71.....	3334015 29
1850.....	1585711 29.....	1949743 01.....	3535454 23
1851.....	1726307 23.....	2036132 20.....	3772439 43

Proportion of the Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage employed in the

YEARS	Regist'd tonnage in whale fishery.	Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Mack'l fishery.	Whale fishery.
1815.....	—	435066 87.....	26370 33.....	—	1229 92
1838.....	119629 89.....	1041105 18.....	70064 60.....	56649 16.....	5229 55
1839.....	131845 25.....	1153551 80.....	72258 68.....	35983 87.....	439 69
1840.....	136726 64.....	1176694 46.....	76035 65.....	28269 19.....	—
1841.....	157405 17.....	1107067 68.....	66551 84.....	11321 13.....	—
1842.....	151612 74.....	1045753 39.....	54804 02.....	16096 83.....	377 31
1843.....	152374 89.....	1076155 59.....	61224 25.....	11775 70.....	142 33
1844.....	168293 63.....	1109614 44.....	85224 77.....	16170 66.....	320 14
1845.....	190695 65.....	1190898 27.....	69825 66.....	21413 16.....	206 92
1846.....	186980 16.....	1289870 89.....	72516 17.....	36463 16.....	439 58
1847.....	193858 72.....	1452623 35.....	70177 59.....	31451 13.....	—
1848.....	192176 90.....	1620988 16.....	82651 82.....	43558 78.....	432 75
1849.....	180186 29.....	1730410 84.....	42970 19.....	73853 78.....	—
1850.....	146916 71.....	1755796 32.....	85646 30.....	58111 94.....	—
1851.....	184644 52.....	1896401 40.....	87475 89.....	59539 01.....	—

3.—EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS, &c., U. S.

Table, exhibiting the aggregate value of Breadstuffs and Provisions, exported annually, from 1821 to 1851, inclusive:

Year ending Sept. 30, 1821.....	\$12,341,901	Value.	Value.
" " 1822.....	13,886,856	" "	89,636,650
" " 1823.....	13,767,817	" "	14,147,779
" " 1824.....	15,059,484	" "	19,067,535
" " 1825.....	11,634,449	" "	17,196,102
" " 1826.....	11,302,496	9 mos., end'g June 30, 1843.....	16,902,876
" " 1827.....	11,685,556	Year ending June 30, 1844.....	11,204,123
" " 1828.....	11,461,144	" "	17,970,135
" " 1829.....	13,134,858	" "	16,743,420
" " 1830.....	12,075,430	" "	1846.....
" " 1831.....	17,538,227	" "	37,701,921
" " 1832.....	12,424,703	" "	37,472,751
" " 1833.....	14,209,198	" "	38,155,507
" " 1834.....	11,524,024	" "	26,051,373
" " 1835.....	12,009,399	" "	24,119,293
" " 1836.....	10,614,130	Total.	\$559,326,578
" " 1837.....	9,588,359		

TONNAGE OF THE STATES.

4.—VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statement, showing the number and class of Vessels built in the United States since the year 1815:

YEARS.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steamers.	Total No. of vessel.	Total ton- nage.	999dhs.
1815.....	136.....	224.....	680.....	274.....	—.....	1314.....	154624.....	39.....
1816.....	76.....	132.....	781.....	424.....	—.....	1403.....	131668.....	04.....
1817.....	34.....	86.....	559.....	394.....	—.....	1073.....	86393.....	37.....
1818.....	53.....	85.....	488.....	332.....	—.....	898.....	83421.....	20.....
1819.....	53.....	82.....	473.....	242.....	—.....	850.....	79817.....	86.....
1820.....	21.....	60.....	301.....	152.....	—.....	534.....	47784.....	01.....
1821.....	43.....	89.....	248.....	127.....	—.....	507.....	55856.....	01.....
1822.....	64.....	131.....	260.....	168.....	—.....	623.....	75346.....	93.....
1823.....	55.....	127.....	260.....	165.....	15.....	622.....	75007.....	57.....
1824.....	56.....	156.....	377.....	166.....	27.....	781.....	90936.....	00.....
1825.....	56.....	197.....	338.....	168.....	35.....	904.....	114997.....	25.....
1826.....	71.....	186.....	482.....	227.....	45.....	1012.....	126439.....	35.....
1827.....	58.....	133.....	464.....	241.....	38.....	934.....	104342.....	67.....
1828.....	73.....	108.....	474.....	196.....	33.....	884.....	98375.....	58.....
1829.....	44.....	68.....	485.....	145.....	43.....	785.....	77098.....	65.....
1830.....	25.....	56.....	403.....	116.....	37.....	637.....	58094.....	24.....
1831.....	72.....	95.....	416.....	94.....	34.....	711.....	83967.....	68.....
1832.....	132.....	143.....	568.....	129.....	100.....	1065.....	114039.....	16.....
1833.....	144.....	169.....	625.....	185.....	65.....	1118.....	161626.....	36.....
1834.....	98.....	94.....	497.....	180.....	68.....	957.....	118330.....	37.....
1835.....	25.....	50.....	309.....	100.....	30.....	507.....	47238.....	52.....
1836.....	93.....	65.....	444.....	164.....	124.....	890.....	113637.....	49.....
1837.....	67.....	72.....	507.....	168.....	135.....	249.....	122987.....	22.....
1838.....	66.....	79.....	501.....	153.....	90.....	898.....	113135.....	42.....
1839.....	83.....	89.....	439.....	129.....	135.....	858.....	120988.....	34.....
1840.....	97.....	109.....	378.....	224.....	64.....	872.....	118309.....	23.....
1841.....	114.....	101.....	310.....	157.....	78.....	763.....	118893.....	71.....
1842.....	116.....	91.....	373.....	404.....	137.....	1021.....	179083.....	64.....
1843.....	58.....	34.....	138.....	173.....	79.....	482.....	63617.....	77.....
1844.....	73.....	47.....	304.....	279.....	163.....	766.....	113537.....	29.....
1845.....	124.....	87.....	322.....	342.....	163.....	1038.....	146018.....	02.....
1846.....	100.....	164.....	576.....	355.....	225.....	8424.....	188903.....	93.....
1847.....	151.....	168.....	689.....	392.....	198.....	1598.....	243732.....	67.....
1848.....	254.....	174.....	701.....	547.....	175.....	1851.....	318075.....	54.....
1849.....	198.....	148.....	623.....	370.....	268.....	1547.....	256377.....	47.....
1850.....	947.....	117.....	547.....	290.....	159.....	1360.....	371718.....	54.....
1851.....	911.....	65.....	332.....	326.....	233.....	1367.....	298202.....	60.....

5.—TONNAGE OF THE STATES.

Statement, showing the amount of Tonnage owned by each state, engaged in foreign and domestic commerce, for the fiscal years 1850 and 1851:

	1850.	1851.		1850.	1851.				
Maine.....	501424.....	78 ..	536114.....	44 ..	Michigan.....	38144 ..	49 ..	41774 ..	86 ..
N. Hampshire,	23096 ..	38 ..	25427 ..	54 ..	Texas.....	3897 ..	42 ..	4913 ..	16 ..
Vermont.....	4530 ..	35 ..	3932 ..	31 ..	California.....	17591 ..	77 ..	58476 ..	02 ..
Massachusetts.	685442 ..	76 ..	694402 ..	93 ..	Wisconsin.....	— ..	— ..	2946 ..	10 ..
Rhode Island.	40499 ..	81 ..	38050 ..	42 ..	Dis. of Col'bria,	17010 ..	61 ..	92903 ..	45 ..
Connecticut.	113086 ..	78 ..	116179 ..	85 ..	Oregon.....	1063 ..	46 ..	1068 ..	43 ..
New-York.	944349 ..	20 ..	1841013 ..	62 ..	Total.....	3535454 ..	23 ..	3771439 ..	43 ..
New-Jersey.	80306 ..	46 ..	8895 ..	90 ..	Steam Tonnage of the U. S. in 1850 and 1851:				
Pennsylvania.	258939 ..	48 ..	284273 ..	64 ..	Steam registered.....	1850.	1851.		
Delaware.....	16719 ..	57 ..	11880 ..	83 ..	tonnage..... tons.	44942 ..	25 ..	62390 ..	13 ..
Maryland.....	193087 ..	40 ..	204444 ..	54 ..	Steam enrolled and				
Virginia.....	74266 ..	55 ..	69769 ..	42 ..	licensed.....	481004 ..	65 ..	521216 ..	87 ..
North Carolina.	74218 ..	49 ..	40729 ..	17 ..					
South Carolina.	36073 ..	13 ..	44187 ..	46 ..	525946 ..	90	583607 ..	05 ..
Georgia.....	21690 ..	14 ..	24185 ..	24 ..	Increase.....			57760 ..	10 ..
Florida.....	11272 ..	76 ..	7042 ..	08 ..	Comparison of Tonnage for 1850 and 1851:				
Alabama.....	24157 ..	60 ..	21327 ..	08 ..	1850.	1851.			
Mississippi.....	1827 ..	63 ..	1404 ..	09 ..	Registered ton-				
Louisiana.....	250089 ..	80 ..	232284 ..	93 ..	nage.....	1585711 ..	22 ..	1726307 ..	23 ..
Missouri.....	28907 ..	67 ..	34065 ..	46 ..					
Illinois.....	21242 ..	17 ..	23103 ..	45 ..	Enrolled and li-				
Kentucky.....	14820 ..	19 ..	12937 ..	60 ..	censed	1949743 ..	01 ..	2046132 ..	20 ..
Tennessee.....	3776 ..	05 ..	3587 ..	67 ..					
Ohio.....	27146 ..	54 ..	58352 ..	24 ..	Total tonnage.	3535454 ..	23 ..	3772439 ..	43 ..

IMPORT AND EXPORT STATISTICS UNITED STATES, 1851. 303

6.—IMPORT AND EXPORT STATISTICS UNITED STATES, 1851.

From the tables of the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, we take the following as of immediate interest:

Synopsis of Imports and Exports for the Fiscal Year, ending 30th June, 1851.

Foreign merchandise imported in American vessels.....	\$160,115,714
In Foreign vessels.....	50,642,380
	<hr/>
Specie imported in American vessels.....	\$3,320,585
In Foreign vessels.....	1,647,316
	<hr/>
Total.....	4,967,901
Foreign merchandise imported as above.....	<hr/>
Less exported, viz—	
In American vessels.....	\$7,708,801
In Foreign do	2,029,894
	<hr/>
	9,738,695
Foreign merchandise consumed.....	<hr/>
Specie imported from Foreign ports.....	\$201,019,399
Do exported to do do in American coin	4,967,301
In Foreign coin.....	11,162,300
	<hr/>
	29,281,880

EXPORTS, VIZ :

American produce in American vessels.....	\$127,054,544
In Foreign vessels.....	51,492,011
	<hr/>
Foreign goods re-exported.....	178,546,555
	<hr/>
Total export of merchandise.....	9,738,695
	<hr/>
	188,285,250

RECAPITULATION.

Total import of merchandise.....	\$210,758,094
Do exports do	188,285,250
	<hr/>
Excess of imports.....	22,472,844
Total exports of specie to foreign ports.....	29,231,780
Do imports do from do do	4,967,901
	<hr/>

Excess of exports..... \$24,263,979

The above does not include the gold from California.

From the statement of the quantity and quality of certain articles imported in 1845 and 1851, we take the following :

Iron.	1845		1851	
	Cwt.	Value.	Cwt.	Value.
Bar manufactured by rolling.....	1,023,772..	\$1,691,748..	5,108,555..	\$7,267,350
Do do otherwise.....	363,580..	872,157..	403,973..	900,026
Pig.....	550,209..	506,291..	1,308,732..	587,599
Old and scrap.....	116,950..	119,740..	166,838..	111,755

Total exports of cotton for 1851—927,237,089 lbs. Value, \$112,315,317. Estimating 450 lbs. to the bale, gives 2,060,527 bales.

VALUE OF BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS EXPORTED.

In 1850.....	\$26,051,373
1851.....	21,421,216
	<hr/>
Decrease in 1851.....	\$4,630,157

IMPORTS, EXPORTS AND TONNAGE, FOR TEN YEARS!

	Imports.	Exports.	Tonnage.
1842	100,162,087	104,691,534	2,092,391
1843*	64,753,799	34,346,480	2,158,603
1844	108,435,035	111,200,046	2,280,095
1845	117,254,564	114,646,606	2,417,042
1846	121,691,797	113,388,516	2,562,085
1747	146,545,638	158,643,622	2,839,046
1848	154,998,928	154,032,181	3,154,042
1949	147,857,439	145,755,820	3,334,015
1850	178,136,318	151,898,720	3,585,454
1851	223,405,272	217,523,201	3,772,439

7.—EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM UNITED STATES, 1850-'51.

The total amount of Cotton Wool exported from the United States, for the fiscal year, 1851, compared with the fiscal year, 1850, was as follows:

	1850.	lbs.	Value.
Sea Islands		8,236,463	
All other		627,145,141	\$71,984,616.

	1851.	lbs.	Value.
Sea Island		8,299,656	
All other		918,937,433	\$112,315,317

The valuation of the crop of 1850, at the rates obtained for the crop of 1851, would have amounted to.....	\$76,951,865
While crop of 1851, at the rates obtained for the crop of 1850, would have amounted but to.....	92,723,715
Averaging 450 pounds to the bale, the number of bales exported in 1851, were.....	2,060,527
Number of bales exported in 1850.....	1,411,959

Average price per bale in 1851.....	\$54 50
Average price per bale in 1850.....	45 00

The annexed table exhibits the ports whence the raw material was sent abroad for the past fiscal year, together with the value and amounts of the same:

PORT.	QUALITY		
	Sea Islands.	Other kinds.	Value.
Boston	—	1,131,736	\$146,588
New-Bedford	—	37,168	3,350
New-York	787,380	16,010,783	21,148,293
Philadelphia	—	2,094,718	200,544
Baltimore	—	174,041	21,438
Charleston	4,580,310	104,538,658	14,091,931
Savannah	2,927,163	68,473,428	8,878,319
Apalachicola	—	35,611,608	3,858,086
St. Marks	—	451,980	61,685
Mobile	—	159,929,389	18,406,864
New-Orleans	4,703	385,814,458	45,330,084
Galveston	—	646,843	75,422
Vermont	—	21,353	1,808
Genesee	—	1,270	150
Total	8,299,656	918,937,433	\$112,315,317

* Nine months, ending June 30.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIRST DAY.

January 5, 1852.

THE Convention assembled at the Second Municipality Hall of New-Orleans ; from six to eight hundred delegates being present, representing eleven states, were received by Col. Maunsel White, President of the Opelousas Convention, with the following brief address :

" GENTLEMEN,—Delegates from our sister states, we tender you a cordial and hearty welcome. We recognize you as friends and brothers, come amongst us by special invitation to deliberate on a matter worthy of American enterprise, in which the whole of the south-western states are deeply interested. Our design offers abundant inducement for the ready co-operation of all who may honor us with their attention. Viewed as public undertakings, the whole Union must acknowledge their importance, and even in the smaller consideration of individual interests, perhaps there never were roads contemplated of higher promise. Now, gentlemen, it will be for you to choose and elect the officers whom you desire to preside over this Convention, as we feel ourselves bound in courtesy to yield you that privilege, confident that in the exercise of this duty, you will be actuated by the sole desire of doing ample and even-handed justice to all the various interests that may be involved. This friendly meeting of representatives of popular interest for the common consideration of so profound a question, is entirely in accordance with the character of our age and day ; and we sincerely trust, gentlemen, that the result of our deliberations will be equally compatible with the all-accomplishing genius of our country. Again, gentlemen, we bid you welcome. The meeting is now prepared for organization. May He who alone presides in an unquestionable wisdom, bless and direct your proceedings."

On motion of J. E. Caldwell, Hon. C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, was chosen President, *pro tem.*, and J. M. Burke, of Lafayette, Secretary, *pro tem.*

Mr. Tarpley, on taking the chair, said he was profoundly sensible of the high compliment that had been paid him, in being chosen to preside temporarily over the deliberations of so great a Convention. Should a suitable occasion present itself, he would give his views on some of the great matters that would engage the attention of the body. But this, he trusted, would be a working Convention ; and the first proceeding in order, was for the chairmen of delegations to hand in a list of the delegates.

Joshua Baldwin, of New-Orleans, moved that a committee of three persons from each State represented in the Convention, be appointed to nominate permanent officers.

J. D. B. De Bow, of New-Orleans, proposed a substitute for Mr. Baldwin's resolution, that a recess of an hour be taken ; that the chairman of each delegation send in the lists of their respective colleagues, and that then a committee to nominate permanent officers, to be chosen, three from the Convention at large, and two from each state.

John Martin, of Little Rock, offered an amendment to the substitute, that the delegates from each state elect one of their number to form the committee.

As the Chair was about to take the sense of the Convention on Mr. Martin's motion, William H. Garland, of New-Orleans, moved to lay both substitutes on the table, and his motion prevailed. The original resolution of Mr. Baldwin was then adopted, with an amendment, substituting two delegates from each state for three.

M. M. Cohen, of New-Orleans, moved that preparations be made to accommodate ladies in the hall, who may compliment the Convention with their presence.

The resolution was adopted, and a recess of half an hour was then taken to give the several delegations time to prepare their lists.

The Convention having re-assembled, the following committees on officers were announced:

Mississippi.—Gen. Acee, Rev. R. L. Gladney.

Missouri.—H. Chouteau, Wm. Wade.

Florida.—J. M. Landrum, Joseph Forsyth.

Alabama.—J. P. Parham, T. B. Goldsby.

Tennessee.—Col. Herman, Col. G. W. Peck.

Kentucky.—Wm. Loery, J. N. Beadles.

Virginia.—Wm. M. Burwell, James McDowell.

Texas.—John T. Mills, J. G. Wright.

Arkansas.—Albert Pike, John Martin.

Louisiana.—James Robb, J. H. Overton.

The Convention, at half-past 1, adjourned to 6 p. m., to allow the committees on officers time to report.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention re-assembled punctually at 6, Hon. C. S. Tarpley in the chair. The following are the lists of delegates handed in; they do not include a very large number who were present by appointment of the Governor of Louisiana, but whose names were not handed in to the Secretary. A great many from other states were also not recorded for the same reason.

Louisiana.—*Parish of St. Landry*.—David Martin, P. Hardy, C. S. Snagee, W. M. Prescott.

Caddo.—Roland Jones, M. Estes, B. L. Hodge, C. G. Young.

Natchitoches.—C. G. Campbell, A. Lecomte, L. G. De Russey, P. Prudhomme, L. M. Hyman.

Ascension.—D. F. Kenner, J. Landry, A. Duffel, E. Duffel, I. H. Ilsley, T. E. H. Cottman, J. Thibaut, N. Landry, A. J. Powell, P. O. Ayrand, A. Maurin, A. Gingry, W. Hutchinson, R. McCall, R. W. Boyd, A. F. Righter, L. D. Nicholls, W. C. Lawes, E. Pedeclaus, V. Pujos, J. L. Marciano, A. M. Templet, F. Blanchard, J. Lehman, V. Landry, M. Rodriguez, V. St. Martin, H. B. Trist.

St. Helena.—John Corken, D. W. Thompson, N. Amacker, L. Dranahan, C. B. Strickland, Jr., H. B. McKie, John Sharkey, A. Womack, Jr., J. H. Wright, W. H. Strickland.

Livingston.—G. W. Waterston, D. Wolls, J. R. Ellis, S. Backston, George Colmer, D. B. Cason, R. Babington, C. C. Kennedy, A. S. Parker, G. F. Rowell, J. Watts, W. E. Walker, H. J. Bennett, D. Addison, James P. Ellmore, Dr. Taylor.

Catahoula.—H. W. Huntington, J. S. Alexander.

Concordia.—Edward Sparrow.

East Baton Rouge.—D. D. Avery, C. G. McHatten, W. S. Pike, T. G. Morgan.

West Baton Rouge.—Noland Stewart, V. Dubecq, W. R. Stuart, P. Hebert, J. T. Landry, J. P. Vaughan.

De Soto.—T. T. Williamson, H. Phillips.

Rapides.—T. O. Moore, C. H. Flower, A. Prescott, D. C. Goodwin, T. J. Wells, M. Wells, James Andrews, O. N. Ogden, M. Ryan, L. Texada, Gen. G. M. Graham, W. W. Whittington.

Terrebonne.—John C. Potts, G. F. Connelly, J. Aycock, H. C. Thibodaux, J. V. Borrelton, A. McCollum, A. Verret, C. B. Devux.

Plaquemines.—J. B. Wilkinson.

St. Charles.—S. McCutcheon, Judge Labanche, W. Polk, Richard Taylor.

St. Martin.—A. De Blanc, A. Declouet, William Robertson, T. C. Nichols, I. E. Morse.

Morehouse.—Major Brigham.

St. Tammany.—Alfred Hennen.

Pointe Coupee.—B. B. Simmes, J. R. Harris, J. L. Mathews, Charles Allen, Charles Poydras.

St. John the Baptist.—A. Deslondes, Jr.

Jefferson.—P. Sauve, H. E. Lawrence, T. J. Ivy.

Ouachita.—John Ray.

Union.—Gen. Henderson, J. H. Carson.

Lafayette.—A. Martin, C. H. Mouton.

Orleans.—E. La Sere, J. A. Gasquet.

Sabine.—H. Phillips.

Lafourche.—Bishop Polk.

St. Mary.—F. D. Richardson, A. L. Field.

Town of Madisonville.—D. Hadden, R. M. Davis, W. A. Grice, J. S. Clark, H. L. Smith, J. B. Behan, W. Terry, W. H. Merriu, T. B. Harper.

Town of Carrollton.—Henry Milhoff, John Hampson, C. G. Forshey, C. W. Muncaster, E. Meegel, F. Schuber.

City of Jefferson.—John M. Bach, J. Calhoun, C. Besbee, Samuel Ricker, C. Brown McNeil, H. H. Williams, Thomas May, W. P. Coleman.

City of New-Orleans.—L. J. Harris, Hon. J. E. Morse, W. Elmore, L. Surgi, Dr. F. Alpuente, T. G. Collins, J. Genois, E. Solomon, D. Cronan, George Allan, W. C. Tompkins, C. M. Waterman, J. Leeds, J. S. Holden, G. May, J. H. Caldwell, B. H. Payne, J. M. Cucullu, J. J. Lughenbuhl, G. De Feriet, P. Senzeneau, George Clark, J. C. Prendergast, H. L. Pierre, A. Derbes, J. A. Bonneval, A. Fisk, L. Heyleger, G. A. Holt, J. L. McLean, John Yeeannes, P. A. Degelos, A. Fernandez, N. C. Folger, W. T. Hepp, C. De Blanc, D. Lanata, A. Dupre, J. Cassard, R. W. Montgomery, H. C. Cammack, M. Blasco, A. Miltenberger, J. W. Zacharie, L. E. Forstall, F. Correjolles, J. M. Lepoyre, John Pemberton, M. Barrett, Sr., H. Legendre, F. Buisson, W. Vogel, N. Richards, R. D. Sheppard, V. Wiltz, J. Viosca, F. Marguez, R. M. McAlpin, J. D. Denegre, G. B. Duncan, B. Avegno, Jr., L. F. Maxent, P. Desverges, W. E. Wilson, G. Bieneau, G. Burke, James Robb, L. Mathews, W. H. Garland, P. Conrey, Jr., W. S. Campbell, J. Baldwin, H. J. Ranney, J. P. Harrison, John G. Cocks, A. J. Wedderburn, E. Rawle, G. M. Pinkard, H. W. Palfrey, John R. Shaw, H. G. Stetson, J. O. Nixon, H. M. Summers, A. P. Simpson, J. N. Hawthorne, Thomas Curry, D. Conyngham, M. M. Cohen, N. R. Jennings, W. P. Atwood, I. N. Marks, R. W. Powell, A. Harris, J. H. Maddox, P. Irwin, Colonel Seymour, S. W. Oakey, Alex. Walker, J. W. Stanton, J. D. B. De Bow, A. M. Holbrook, Logan McNight, S. Turner, J. G. Gribble, S. Story, S. S. Harby, H. Kennedy, A. Montanye, J. A. Beard, W. P. Converse, E. McPherson, T. B. Winston, S. J. Peters, H. Florance, R. Hunt, W. Cristy, L. Hunton, J. G. Dunlap, J. Crickard, J. E. Caldwell, C. C. Lathrop, C. J. Leeds, J. W. Price, A. Lanfear, S. Smith, I. D. Marsh, Janus Bonner, W. G. Kendall, E. E. Parker.

City of Lafayette.—John M. Burke, B. Florance, H. S. Buckner, A. D. Kelly, L. De Saules, Logan McKnight, J. H. Donegan, C. T. Buddecke, R. N. Ogden, D. S. Dewees, James Norment, S. H. Peck, L. R. Kenny, H. J. Hart, N. Commander, M. M. Dowler, John Turpin, T. C. Jenkins, T. G. Mackay, D. Hadden, S. S. Burdette, R. W. Milbank, S. S. Green, John A. Watkins, H. E. Lawrence.

VIRGINIA.—William M. Burwell, James McDowell.

KENTUCKY.—William Soery, J. N. Beadles, W. Thornsberry, H. M. McCarty, T. Davis, J. W. Jones, J. Campble.

TENNESSEE.—Col. A. Herman, and James A. Porter, Nashville; Right. Rev. J. H. Otey, Col. George W. Polk, and Gen. L. J. Polk, Maury county; T. Trezevant, R. C. Brinkley, J. R. McClellanahan, D. M. Leatherman, W. Armour, J. T. Leah.

ALABAMA.—T. B. Goldsby, P. J. Weaver, J. W. Lapsley, George P. Blevins, W. S. Burr, J. P. Perham.

FLORIDA.—J. M. Landrum, William D. Keyser, and John Forsyth, St. Rosa county.

MISSOURI.—(Appointed by the St. Louis Chamber of Commerce.)—P. R. McCreery, E. J. Gay, W. C. Kennett, R. A. Burnes, R. J. Lockwood, R. N. Rennick, and Franklin Childs, absent; Henry Chouteau, and William Wade, present.

MISSISSIPPI.—C. S. Tarpley, Hinds county; Gen. E. L. Acee, Yallabusha county; Rev. R. S. Gladney, Aberdeen; Rev. J. Sidney Hays, Louisville; Col. John Duncan, Grenada; Major A. M. Foute, Jackson; Z. Rector, French Camp; Major Samuel White, Pearlington; Col. H. G. Street, Liberty; R. A. Johnson, Princeton; R. H. Cramp, J. W. Vick, G. G. Noland, Shepherd Brown, N. G. Watts, J. D. Cobb, and J. Willis, Vicksburg; W. V. Lane, Warrenton; J. S. Yerger, Greenville; J. S. McCall, H. W. Walter, Richard H. Stokes, S. W. Land.

ARKANSAS.—Capt. Albert Pike, Col. A. Fowler, R. C. Farrelly, Little Rock; Colonel John Martin, St. Helena; Rev. Leonard Fletcher, J. C. Palmer, R. F. Sutton, S. C. Faulkner, Luther Chase, W. D. Ferguson.

TEXAS.—Travis G. Wright, Amos Morrill, J. T. Mills, Red River county; C. C. Alexander, S. B. Allen, Lamar county.

GEORGIA.—Peter Conrey, and others, citizens of New-Orleans, appointed to represent that state, presented their credentials.

Mr. Robb, from the committee on officers, reported the following, and the nominations were unanimously approved:

Ex-Gov. ALEX. MOUTON, of La., President.

Vice-Presidents.—C. S. Tarpley, Mississippi; Joseph Forsyth, Florida; Gen. Lucius C. Polk, Tennessee; William N. Burwell, Virginia; Amos Morrill, Texas; H. Chouteau, Missouri; P. P. Parham, Alabama; J. N. Beadles, Kentucky; Judge James Campbell, Louisiana; Absalom Fowler, Arkansas.

Secretaries.—John Calhoun, Victor Wiltz, Louisiana; R. C. Farreley, Arkansas; John Duncan, Mississippi.

Governor Mouton, on taking the Chair, addressed the Convention as follows:

"*Gentlemen of the Convention.*—For the unexpected honor you have conferred on me, I tender you my thanks. I am fully aware of the difficulties that surround my position, and sometimes think I am hardly equal to the discharge of the duties you have imposed upon me; but looking at the character of the gentlemen assembled here, and appreciating their intelligence and patriotism, and the motives that actuate them, I trust myself unhesita-

tingly upon their indulgence, and hope, with their assistance, that the results anticipated from the meeting will be accomplished. I congratulate you upon the high motives that have engaged you in this movement. We have all in view the common good of the country, and in working for this end, we cannot expect that all will agree exactly as to the means; but the spirit in which you have assembled is sufficient guarantee that whatever difficulties may arise, they will disappear in the presence of the ambition for the general good. You have honored me by associating with me distinguished gentlemen from other states, upon whose assistance I rely. I have not for many years participated in parliamentary proceedings, but, gentlemen, the great objects for which we have assembled, preclude the supposition that we will be impeded by technicalities; and I repeat my confident belief, that our deliberations will be harmonious, and will result favorably."

Mr. Robb, with a few prefatory remarks, offered a resolution authorizing the Chair to appoint three committees, viz.: one on Routes; one on Ways and Means, and one on Resolutions. The resolution was adopted without dissent, the Chair to announce the committees at the next meeting.

A gentleman, whose name we did not hear, asked if all the routes which were entitled to the friendly regard of the various delegations present, were to be referred to the Committee on Routes.

Mr. Robb explained that the object of his resolution, and the appointment of the committees referred to, was to prevent that dissipation of influence and power, which would inevitably result from the open debate of every scheme that might be brought before the Convention. They met not for an idle purpose; not for the mere expression of opinion, but to accomplish results, and those results should be accomplished. The object was to devise practicable projects; to establish a grand system of rail-roads, which would make New-Orleans and the Southwest what they ought to be, and to devise the ways and means by which this great end might be attained. In the course of his remarks, he expressed his high gratification at the large and influential assemblage he saw before him, and from the spirit which animated it, argued undoubted and early success.

Mr. Hampson, of Louisiana, offered a resolution that in voting, each state should have but one vote, and the resolution was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

TUESDAY, January 6, 1852.

MORNING SESSION.

The Convention met at half past 11 o'clock, A. M.

The minutes of yesterday's sittings were read and approved.

The following committees were announced by the President:

Committee on Routes.

Virginia.—Wm. M. Burwell, Wyndham Robertson, Dr. James McDowell. *Texas.*—Jno. T. Mills, C. C. Alexander, H. G. Catlett. *Mississippi.*—R. S. Gladney, E. L. Acee, J. W. Vick. *Arkansas.*—Albert Pike, John Martin, A. Fowler. *Missouri.*—Henry Chouteau, P. R. McCreery, Edward J. Gay. *Kentucky.*—William Soery, J. N. Beadles. *Alabama.*—P. J. Weaver, T. B. Goldsby, G. P. Blevins. *Tennessee.*—Rev. J. H. Otey, L. J. Polk, Jas. A. Porter. *Louisiana.*—Col. W. S. Campbell, L. G. DeRussey, Buckner H. Payne. *Florida.*—W. J. Keyser, J. M. Landrum, Jas. Forsyth.

Committee on Ways and Means.

Virginia.—W. M. Burwell, Wyndham Robertson, Dr. Jas. McDowell. *Texas.*—A. Morrill, S. P. Allen, T. G. Wright. *Mississippi.*—Shepherd Brown, Samuel White, H. G. Street. *Arkansas.*—Luther Chase, Wm. D. Ferguson, C. F. Sutton. *Missouri.*—W. C. Kennett, R. A. Barnes, R. J. Lockwood. *Kentucky.*—William Soery, J. N. Beadles. *Alabama.*—P. J. Weaver, J. W. Lapsley, J. B. Parham. *Tennessee.*—Lucius J. Polk, James A. Porter, A. Heiman. *Louisiana.*—James Robb, Henry Phillips, J. P. Benjamin. *Florida.*—Jos. Forsyth, W. J. Keyser, J. M. Landrum.

Committee on Resolutions.

Mississippi.—J. S. Verger, H. G. Street, R. A. Johnson. *Virginia.*—W. M. Burwell, Wyndham Robertson, Dr. Jas. McDowell. *Texas.*—Jno. T. Mills, T. G. Wright, H. G. Catlett. *Arkansas.*—Albert Pike, John Martin, L. C. Faulkner. *Missouri.*—Wm. Wade, Franklin Chiles, Dr. J. A. January. *Kentucky.*—William Soery, J. N. Beadles. *Alabama.*—J. W. Lapsley, W. F. Burr, J. B. Parham. *Tennessee.*—Geo. W. Polk, J. H. Otey, A. Heiman. *Louisiana.*—M. M. Cohen, A. Declouet, J. H. Overton. *Florida.*—J. M. Landrum, W. J. Keyser, Jos. Forsyth.

Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, presented the following resolutions, and moved to refer them to a special committee of five:

Resolved, That the Legislature of the State of Mississippi be, and it is hereby

most respectfully solicited, to grant a charter to a company to construct a rail-road from the city of Jackson or from Canton, in said state, to some point on the north-eastern boundary line of said state, to connect with the Nashville and Southern Rail-road.

Resolved, That said Legislature be, and it is hereby most respectfully solicited, to grant a charter to a company to construct a rail-road from this city to Jackson, or from Canton in said state, northwardly and centrally through said state.

Resolved, That said Legislature of the State of Mississippi be, and the same is hereby most respectfully solicited, to afford such aid as it may deem proper to the construction of said roads; also, the construction of that portion of the Jackson and New-Orleans rail-road, within the limit of the State of Mississippi, and also to the construction of that portion of the Brandon and Montgomery Rail-road within the limit of said state.

Resolved, That the city of New-Orleans, by her delegates in this Convention, hereby pledges herself for a very liberal aid in the construction of the said several rail-roads.

Resolved, That a committee of —— be appointed by the President of the Convention to wait upon the Legislature of the State of Mississippi, now in session, present these resolutions, and confer with the said Legislature upon the subjects presented by them, at such time and in such manner as said Legislature may appoint.

On motion of Mr. James Robb, of Louisiana, it was resolved, that the members of the different committees have the power of substitution.

The following was presented by Col. C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, as a substitute for the resolutions of Mr. Walter:

Resolved, That the President of this Convention appoint a committee, consisting of two members, upon each of the following routes of rail-road, to wit: the roads from New-Orleans to Nashville; from New-Orleans to Opelousas; from Jackson to Selma; from Jackson to Holly Springs; from Vicksburg to Shreveport; from Little Rock to the Mississippi River; from Memphis to Charleston; together with such other routes as may be suggested by any delegate in attendance on this Convention, whose duty it shall be to report to this Convention all the information connected with each of said routes, giving the distance, population, production and benefits of said routes, together with all such information connected with the same, as they may deem necessary and proper to communicate; and that said reports be printed, and constitute a portion of the proceedings of this Convention.

Mr. B. H. Payne, of Louisiana, offered an amendment to the substitute of Col. Tarpley, but the President ruled that an amendment to a substitute was out of order.

Mr. R. A. Johnson, of Mississippi, moved to lay the resolutions of Mr. Walter and the substitute of Col. Tarpley, on the table, which motion was carried.

Mr. John T. Mills, of Texas, made a motion, which was carried, that the mode of voting be settled before the Convention proceed to any other business.

On motion of Mr. I. E. Morse, of Louisiana, it was unanimously

Resolved, That the voting in Convention shall be by states, each being equal, and the mode of casting the vote be determined by a majority of the delegates from such states.

On motion of Mr. C. G. Forshey, of Louisiana, it was resolved that the President appoint a messenger to the Convention.

On motion, the Convention took a recess for ten minutes.

The Convention having re-assembled, the President appointed Caspar Funk, messenger.

On motion of Mr. W. M. Burwell, of Virginia, it was

Resolved, that the standing committees have leave to sit during the sittings of the Convention.

Mr. James Robb, of Louisiana, made a motion, which was carried, that the Committee of Arrangements assign places on the floor to the delegations from the several states.

Mr. G. C. Lawrason, of Louisiana, made a motion, which was adopted, that the vote by states shall not be taken, unless specially called for.

The following, offered by Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, was adopted:

Resolved, That the delegations from each state be requested to present to the

Convention all reports, projects or plans, for improvements in their respective states, to be read, and if desired, discussed, and referred to the appropriate general committees.

Mr. J. E. Caldwell, of Louisiana, made a motion, which was carried, that the several states be now called on to present their *projects*.

The following was offered by Mr. Albert Pike, of Arkansas, and on his motion, referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That this Convention is profoundly penetrated with the conviction that the state of Louisiana and the city of New-Orleans are deeply interested in the development of the resources of such of the South-western states as lie west of the Mississippi River, in the increase of their population and production, and in securing to the city of New-Orleans, for all coming time, by energetic measures promptly taken and steadfastly pursued, the great and growing trade of that important region, for which Providence has done everything, and Man, hitherto, little or nothing.

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes be instructed to inquire in regard to the agricultural and mineral resources of the state of Arkansas, and those portions of the states of Texas and Missouri, the trade of which can be permanently secured to the city of New-Orleans, and what roads are contemplated in those states, in the building of which, that city is, in fact, interested.

Resolved, That the Committee on Ways and Means are instructed to inquire in what manner aid can be extended by the state of Louisiana and city of New-Orleans towards the construction of such roads.

Resolved, That this Convention will urge upon the people and the legislature of the state of Louisiana the importance of becoming acquainted with the great natural resources of those states, of aiding in their development by all proper and legitimate means, and of opening channels by which their trade shall flow permanently into the city of New-Orleans, instead of being diverted soon, and diverted forever, to the Atlantic cities; to which end they will urge the state of Louisiana to draw closer the bonds which unite her with those sister states; to assure them of her earnest and cordial co-operation and sympathy in their plans of improvement, and her warm interest in their prosperity and welfare, and to pledge to them her aid, her encouragement, and her kind offices, and those of her citizens and of her Representatives and Senators in the Congress of the United States.

The following, offered by Mr. W. M. Burwell, of Virginia, was adopted:

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes inquire into the expediency of recognizing and recommending to public patronage the South-western National railroad, commencing at New-Orleans and terminating at Washington City, passing through the states of Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Tennessee, Virginia, and offering the shortest line of mail and travel transit between New-Orleans and New-York.

The following preamble, resolutions, &c., were offered by Mr. R. S. Gladney, of Mississippi, and on motion of Mr. Walter, they were referred to the Committee on Routes, with instructions to report to-morrow morning.

Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Florida, and Alabama were not prepared with any projects. The call of Mississippi was responded to by the Rev. M. Bradley, who offered the following resolutions:

Whereas we live in an age in which the rail-road system is the great labor-saving machinery in the way of transportation and travel, controlling directly the commercial world, and indirectly affecting all the pursuits of life; and, consequently, the wealth, education, civilization and power, both political and military, wherever it exists; therefore,

Resolved, That the great interests of the South and West require that their energies should be put forth in planning and constructing great systems of rail-ways, for the purpose of giving a proper direction to their commerce, developing all their natural resources, establishing and building up manufactoryes, increasing their wealth and population, and maintaining their power, their influence, and their institutions.

Resolved, That the friends of the rail-road system should first direct their efforts to those great and leading trunks, which, from their length and location, the points which they connect, and the country through which they pass, will render it certain, that they will be highly important, not only in a commercial

point, but profitable to stockholders ; affording the greatest facilities for the construction of branches ; and the route such as will call forth the energies and resources necessary to their speedy construction.

Resolved, That the interests of the South and Southwest require, that their own cities on the coast should become the great emporiums of imports and exports ; that the towns of the interior are the most important feeders of the importing and exporting cities ; the proper distributors of merchandise, and are highly necessary to the full development of the wealth, and the increase of the population of the country ; and that in the construction of rail-roads, special reference should be had to the building up of the interior towns, as the means of increasing the wealth and population of the country, upon which depend the growth and prosperity of our cities upon the coast.

Resolved, That the Opelousas road, to be continued through Texas, and ultimately to the Pacific Ocean, and the New-Orleans and Jackson road, to be continued northward in the direction of Holly Springs, and northeastward to Aberdeen, thence to Tuscumbia, to meet with the contemplated road thence to Nashville, Louisville, and Cincinnati, to connect with the roads running to Lake Erie and other places, and branching off at Tuscumbia to Chattanooga, thence running to Knoxville, Tenn., Washington and Baltimore ; constituting the most direct routes from New-Orleans to Lake Erie and New-York, connected either directly or indirectly with the principal rail-roads and rivers in the United States, leading directly from all the older states to Texas and California, and destined, so soon as the road is constructed to the Pacific, to be the great highway of the China trade, is a project not more magnificent than important, and claims the most respectful consideration of this Convention.

Resolved, That to render the railway system most economical, effective, and profitable, it requires concert of action on the part of the citizens of each state, as to different roads within its limits, and of the different states as to roads passing through and connecting them, in planning and constructing rail-roads ; and that we recommend annual conventions, and the appointment of standing committees, who shall communicate and advise with each other on all matters of importance relative to the plans and progress of rail-roads, and that we recommend De Bow's Review as a suitable medium of communication, and regard it as a most important auxiliary in the great cause of internal improvement.

Resolved, That while we regard the public lands as belonging equally to all the states, and held by Congress in trust for the benefit of all equally, we approve of donations for the purpose of constructing important rail-roads, by which the public lands are enhanced in value, and the private and public interests equally promoted.

Mr. J. E. Caldwell, of La., gave notice that room No. 18 had been assigned to the Committee on Routes; room No. 21 to the Committee on Ways and Means ; and room No. 22 to the Committee on Resolutions.

On motion, the Convention adjourned until 6 o'clock, P. M.

TUESDAY, January 6, 1852.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention met at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

Mr. W. S. Campbell, of Louisiana, gave notice that he had substituted the name of Mr. C. G. Young, of Louisiana, for his own, on the Committee on Routes.

Mr. John Martin, of Arkansas, gave notice that he had substituted the name of Mr. John C. Palmer, of Arkansas, for his own, on the Committee on Resolutions.

The following was presented by Mr. C. G. Young, of Louisiana, who moved that it be received and referred to the Committee on Routes, which was carried.

[Will be published in another place.]

Mr. J. P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, being called on, addressed the Convention.

Mr. De Bow, acting chairman of the Committee on Correspondence, informed the Convention that communications had been received from Lieutenant Maury upon the subject of promoting the foreign trade at the South ; from Col. Abert of the Topographical Corps, on the extension of railroads in Texas ; from Mr. Gregg, of S. C., on the manufacturing prosperity of the southern states ; from Mr.

Saunders, of North Carolina, on the same subject; from Mr. Bates, of Missouri, and Col. Phillips, of Mobile. Mr. De Bow deemed it proper that these communications should be published, which was ordered. He also addressed the Convention at length upon the general subjects before it.

The following, presented by Mr. John Martin, of Arkansas, was referred to the Committee on Routes. [Will be published in another place.]

Col. Tarpley, of Mississippi, presented the following resolution, with the request that it should lie on the table for the present. He observed that the people of Mississippi felt a deep and warm interest in the measures and objects of this Convention.

Resolved, That when this Convention adjourns, it will adjourn to meet in the city of Jackson, in the State of Mississippi, on Monday, the 12th inst.; and the members of the Convention are cordially invited to attend, and the hospitalities of the city of Jackson are hereby tendered to each and all of them.

Mr. J. S. Yerger, of Mississippi, presented a resolution which was unanimously adopted, that a committee wait upon J. P. Benjamin, Esq., and request a copy of his speech for publication. [Mr. Benjamin declines to furnish the speech, not having time to write it out.]

Mr. Lathrop, of N. O., presented a series of resolutions expressive of the duties which the legislature is called upon to perform in changing the present restrictive constitution, and also pointing out certain roads which this Convention ought to look upon with favor. The resolutions lie over until to-morrow.

Mr. J. T. Trezevant, of Tennessee, presented the following resolutions, and moved that they be laid on the table, which was carried. [Not found.]

Mr. A. J. Power, of Louisiana, presented a report, which, on his motion, was referred to the Committee on Routes. Adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, January 7, 1852.

MORNING SESSION.

The Convention met at 11 o'clock, A.M.

The minutes of yesterday's morning and evening sessions were read.

General E. L. Acee, of Mississippi, presented the following resolutions, which on his motion, were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That it is alike the duty and interest of the Southwestern states to foster and build up the cities near or along the Atlantic seaboard; and that it is the opinion of this Convention no policy is better calculated to effect this great object than a liberal and enlightened system of internal improvement connecting every important section of the aforesaid states by leading rail-road communications.

Resolved, That for the more certain promotion of this desirable object, it is respectfully recommended to the above-mentioned states, to adopt a uniform system in the construction of their rail-roads, by which means all delays in the conveyance of produce, merchandise and passengers, from one state to another, will be avoided.

Resolved, That the policy of donating the public lands to private persons, as lately urged in Congress, is unjust, not only to the old states, but to many of the new, and is calculated not only to divert population from the Southwest, but to diminish, still further, the political power of the slaveholding states.

Resolved, That even-handed justice requires that Congress should cede respectively to the states of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri, at least six million of acres of the public domain, for the construction of rail-roads within their limits, and that the senators and representatives from said states be, and are hereby requested to procure said donations as soon as practicable.

Mr. H. G. Street, of Miss., substituted Mr. J. S. Hays, in place of himself, on the Committee on Routes.

The Chair announced the following appointments to the several committees from the delegation from Georgia:

Committee on Resolutions—John Slidell, W. C. Micou, J. Brander.

Committee on Routes—J. Brander, J. W. Stanton, W. C. Micou.

Committee of Ways and Means.—Peter Conrey, J. W. Stanton, E. S. Slatter.
Mr. W. M. Burwell, of Virginia, presented the following:

That Gen. O. G. Clay and J. B. Anderson be substituted on the Standing Committee, in the absence of others from Virginia.

On motion, the report and resolutions presented by Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, on the 6th instant, were adopted.

Mr. A. Fowler, of Arkansas, offered the following resolutions, which, on his motion, were referred to the Committee on Routes.

Resolved, That this Convention approve of the line designated in the charter of the "Arkansas Central Rail-road Company" as an important link in the general rail-road system of the Southwestern states and of the Union.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend the several delegations in Congress from the states represented here, to lend their countenance and aid in furthering the objects of the accompanying memorial, and in consummating the grant of lands therein prayed for.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention, it is not only proper but necessary, in carrying out the primary objects of the Convention, and in advancing the prosperity of the States of Missouri, Arkansas, Texas and Louisiana, that said line of rail-road, from some point east of Little Rock, be extended to St. Louis, and from its southern terminus by one line through the State of Texas, and another to New-Orleans. Referred.

The following resolutions, presented by Mr. John Ray, of [Louisiana], were referred to the Committee on Routes.

Resolved, That the Senators and Representatives in the Congress of the United States, representing the states represented in this Convention, be requested to use their exertions and influence to obtain from the United States a survey of the proposed railroad route from the Mississippi River via Shreveport, west, with a view to the relative advantage and practicability of this route as the eastern terminus of the contemplated Pacific Rail-road.

Resolved, That said Senators and Representatives be also requested to use their exertions and influence in obtaining the repeal of the duty on rail-road iron imported into the United States.

A report relative to rail-roads in progress of construction and projected in Missouri, was presented by Mr. H. Chouteau, and on his motion referred to the same committee. [Will be published in another place.]

The following, presented by Mr. John T. Mills, of Texas, was, on his motion, referred to the same committee.

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes be instructed to inquire into the most practicable route, by rail-road, of connecting the northeast portion of Texas with the Mississippi River, at some point below the city of Memphis, and report thereon. Referred.

The following preamble and resolution, offered by Mr. B. B. Simmes, of Louisiana, were, on his motion, referred to the same committee :

Whereas there exists in this Convention conflicting views as to that portion of country through which the principal rail-road line westward should run—

And whereas it would be imprudent in a matter of such magnitude to decide hastily, or without a full examination and survey of the different routes proposed; therefore, be it

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair for the purpose of memorializing Congress to have appointed a board of engineers, whose duty it shall be to determine the most practicable route for a rail-road from the Mississippi to the Sabine, to meet the Great Western and Pacific Rail road, as projected through Texas; and that it be made the duty of said board of engineers to examine the routes proposed through Louisiana at, and south of, the mouth of Red river. Referred.

Mr. L. M. Hyams, of Louisiana, presented the following resolutions, and, on his motion, they were referred to the Committee on Routes.

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes be instructed to report upon the practicability and expediency of connecting any rail-road from Texas with Shreveport, in the parish of Caddo; thence through the parishes of Nachitoches, Rapides and Avoyelles, to connect with the Opelousas Road at Washington.

Resolved, That it belongs of right to the state of Texas to determine whether she will so unite, and at what point on the western boundary. Referred.

On motion of Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, the resolutions of Mr. Trezevant, of Tennessee, were made the order of the day for 8 o'clock, P.M.

Mr. Henry, of Mobile, offered resolutions to the effect that banks were of material assistance in making rail-roads; and that the Convention memorialize the Legislatures of the Southern and Western states that were opposed to chartering banks, requesting them to review their opposition, and grant charters for the purpose. Referred.

Mr. J. Baldwin, of New-Orleans, offered a resolution, that this Convention remain as it is, undissolved, hereafter; that it meet once a year at such time and place as may be found most needed. [Referred to the Committee on Resolutions.]

WEDNESDAY, January 7, 1852.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention met at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

An invitation to the Convention to join in the celebration of the Anniversary of the 8th of January, 1815, was read and accepted.

The following preamble and resolutions were offered by Mr. C. C. Lathrop, as a substitute for those offered by him yesterday, and on his motion, they were referred to the Committee on Resolutions. [These resolutions were not returned.]

Mr. C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, by invitation, addressed the Convention.

Mr. James Robb, of Louisiana, Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, stated that the report of that committee was not yet finished, but with the consent of the Convention, he would give an outline of the same, verbally, and furnish the written report at a subsequent meeting. Having addressed the Convention, he offered the following resolutions on behalf of said committee, which were adopted by the vote of every state represented in the Convention.

Resolved, That the great system of internal communication by rail-roads through the Southern and Southwestern States, is an object of such importance, as to justify and require a liberal application of the resources of the states interested in these works.

Resolved, That the voluntary subscriptions of private individuals are inadequate to the accomplishment of works of such magnitude.

Resolved, That public lands in the Western and Southwestern States of this Union ought to be liberally appropriated to the objects now proposed, and that this appropriation ought to be made by a general law, applicable within proper restrictions to all the rail-road enterprises in which the people of the West and Southwest are interested.

Resolved, That the great additional value given to public lands by rail-roads passing in their neighborhood, and the augmented revenues derived by the Government from the increased population and wealth which result directly from such works, render it peculiarly proper and equitable that the General Government, which shares in the benefit, should contribute by grants of land to the cost of such works.

Resolved, That it is the right of the people, whenever they may deem it proper, to subscribe through their municipal and parochial corporations, for the stock of rail-roads calculated to advance their interests, and that the legislatures of the different states ought, by law, to authorize their cities, parishes and counties, to make such subscription when desired by the respective inhabitants.

Resolved, That the resources for the payment of such subscriptions when made, ought to be derived from taxes levied on landed property, inasmuch as that species of property is more than any other, benefited and enhanced in value by works of internal improvement.

Resolved, That whenever subscriptions are made by cities, counties or parishes, it is inexpedient that the administration of the stock thus subscribed should remain under the control of the local authorities, and that it ought to be distributed amongst those whose property has been taxed for its payment, in proportion to the amount paid by each; to the end that each individual may be stimulated by personal interest to a vigilant supervision of the conduct of the work.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the chair to address to the Congress of the United States and to the Legislatures of the separate states, ceremonials in support of the principles contained in these resolutions.

On motion of Mr. J. T. Trezevant, of Tennessee, the resolutions presented by him were referred to the Committee on Routes.

On motion, the Convention adjourned until to-morrow.

FRIDAY, January 9, 1852.

MORNING SESSION.

The Convention met at half-past ten o'clock, A. M., Vice-President A. Fowler, of Arkansas, in the chair.

The minutes of the 7th and 8th instant were read and approved.

The following, offered by Mr. R. J. Ranney, of Louisiana, was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That a committee consisting of one member from each of the states represented in this Convention be appointed by the President for the purpose of recommending (after consultation with managers and engineers of the various rail-roads already made and in operation, or in progress towards completion,) the most suitable and proper gauge or breadth between the rails, with a view to its adoption for all the rail-roads which may be constructed in the Southern and Western States.

Mr. W. N. Burwell, of Virginia, chairman of the Committee on Routes, presented the following:—

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes regard the following system of internal improvements as not only indispensable to the development of the agricultural, commercial and mineral wealth of the Southwestern states and cities, but also as essential to the equality and unity of the states of this Confederacy; and they earnestly recommend the same to the patriotic consideration of the legislature and citizens of the Southwestern states.

1. A national road to the Pacific ocean; with one terminus on the Mississippi River north, and one south of the mouth of the Ohio River, so as to divide the advantages of each road as equally as possible among the different states of the Union.

2. The Southwestern National Rail-road, from Washington City to New-Orleans, passing through the States of Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana; constituting the shortest practicable line of mail and travel transit, and consisting of the following continuous sections now under construction, to wit: the Richmond and Lynchburg Rail-road, the Virginia and Tennessee Road, the Georgia and Alabama Road, the Alabama and Tennessee River Road, the Selma and Jackson Road, the New-Orleans and Jackson Road.

3. *For Kentucky*.—The Memphis and Louisville Road, the Louisville and Nashville Road.

4. *For Tennessee*.—The Memphis and Louisville Road, the Memphis and Charleston Road, the Louisville and Nashville Road, the Nashville and Southwestern Road, and the roads embraced in the "National Route" above referred to.

5. *For Alabama*.—The Mobile and Ohio Road, and the roads embraced in the "National Route" referred to.

6. *For Georgia and Florida*.—The Gulf Road, or a continuation of the Southwestern Road of Georgia to Pensacola Bay; the Florida and Peninsular Road.

7. *For Mississippi*.—The Mobile and Ohio Road; the New-Orleans, Jackson and Nashville Road; the New-Orleans, Holly Springs and Ohio Road; the Vicksburg and Jackson Road, extended by Brandon eastward to Selma.

8. *For Arkansas*.—The Arkansas and Mississippi River Road, from Fort Smith or Van Buren to Little Rock, and thence to White River, and there diverging to Memphis and Helena. A road from Fayetteville to Van Buren; and one from the Central Rail-road, leaving the same near the St. Francis Ridge, through Jackson and Independence counties to southwestern Missouri. A road from Little Rock to the Louisiana Line, to intersect with the New-Orleans and Opelousas Rail-road. A road from Northeastern Texas to Little Rock, crossing Red River at or near Fulton.

9. *For Louisiana*.—The New-Orleans, Algiers, Texas and El Paso Road; the

Madisonville and Jackson Road; the Vicksburg and Shreveport Road; the New Orleans and Nashville Road.

10. *For Texas.*—A road from a point on the northeast part of the state (connecting with the Little Rock and Fulton Road,) to run on the dividing ridge of the Sulphur and Red River to the ridge between Bois D'Ark and Sulphur; thence to Dallas, and to connect with the New-Orleans and El Paso Route. The continuation of the New-Orleans, Opelousas and El Paso Road through Texas.

11. *For Missouri.*—The road from St. Louis westward; the Hannibal and St. Joseph Road.

On motion of Mr. Burwell, of Virginia, the resolution and schedule of railroads submitted by the Committee on Routes, were taken up *seriatim*.

The resolution and first section of the schedule were then taken up and unanimously adopted.

The second section being under consideration, Mr. J. R. Anderson, of Virginia, offered an amendment to conciliate several delegates, which was rejected.

Mr. Wm. Campbell, of Kentucky, offered an amendment, which was adopted, proposing a route from Paducah, at the mouth of the Tennessee River, to the Tennessee State Line, to intersect the road from New-Orleans and Mobile.

On motion of Mr. H. L. Hyams, of Louisiana, the resolution and schedule offered by the Committee on Routes were taken up, as amended, and unanimously adopted.

The following, offered by Mr. J. R. Anderson, of Virginia, was passed:

Resolved, That, as the sense of this Convention, a railway and water communication across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is of national importance, and especially so to the whole Southwest.

Mr. J. S. Hays, of Mississippi, presented the following resolutions for Mr. E. L. Acee, of the same state, and moved to lay them on the table till 6 o'clock, p.m., which motion was carried:

Resolved, That the connection of the Southern Atlantic seaboard with the Pacific Ocean, by means of a rail-road, is a great American measure, of commanding national importance, and worthy of governmental favor and assistance.

Resolved, That the highest commercial and political considerations imperiously demand the early construction of this important national highway; and that in the opinion of this Convention, the Congress of the United States cannot make a more just and judicious disposal of the public domain lying within the south of California, than the appropriation of a large and liberal portion of the same for the completion of this great undertaking.

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Convention that the most eligible and practicable route for said rail-road is from San Diego, or San Francisco, on the Pacific coast, by way of El Paso, to the State of Texas.

Resolved, That a committee, composed of one delegate from each state represented in this Convention, be appointed by the President of the same to draft a memorial to Congress, setting forth the advantages and practicability of said proposed road, and asking the appropriation of fifty millions of acres of the public lands, lying in the State of California, for the construction of this great Southwestern railway.

Resolved, That three persons be appointed a committee by this Convention to present said memorial to Congress during its present session, and urge before that honorable body the early consideration and adoption of such measures as will secure, without delay, the accomplishment of this truly national enterprise.

The following preamble and resolutions were offered by Mr. W. S. Campbell, of Louisiana:

Whereas the City of New-Orleans is the great commercial entrepot, not only of Louisiana but also of the states of the great valley drained by the Mississippi River; and whereas the States of Arkansas, Mississippi, Texas, and the others within said valley, have as direct an interest as Louisiana, in the facilities afforded to both the foreign and domestic commerce, which naturally seeks New-Orleans as an emporium for barter, distribution, or export; and whereas, the maritime outlet of the products and importations of the Southwest is within the jurisdiction of the State of Louisiana, and, as a consequence, all goods and commodities exported and imported through that channel are effected by her laws, which may encourage or impede the growth, commercial prospects, military strength and

political power of the States of the Valley of the Mississippi, thus rendering her morally responsible to them for the passage of such laws as will encourage, enlarge and strengthen the commercial and social interest of this vast section of the confederacy; therefore, be it

Resolved, That this Convention, representing the states interested, respectfully but earnestly request the Legislature of Louisiana to repeal and abolish all laws, either statutory or constitutional, they have enacted, which may be in conflict with the spirit of the foregoing preamble, and that they will adopt such other laws as may be necessary to promote harmony of action and unity of effort on the part of the Southwestern states in constructing such a great system of railroads as will facilitate their intercourse with their natural commercial emporium; and that the Legislature, in such manner as their wisdom may designate, do promote the immediate construction of great trunk rail-roads, leading north and west from New-Orleans, upon which the various branch rail-roads of this and other states may be grafted.

Mr. T. G. Morgan, of Louisiana, moved to lay them on the table; but, before the question was put, the Convention adjourned until 6 o'clock, P. M.

FRIDAY, January 9, 1852.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention met at 7 o'clock, P. M.

Vice-President A. Fowler, of Arkansas, in the chair.

Mr. T. G. Morgan, of Louisiana, withdrew his motion of this morning, to lay the resolutions of Mr. W. S. Campbell on the table, and made a motion that they be adopted, which was unanimously carried.

The acting President announced the following committees appointed by the President, A. Mouton, before he left the city:

Committee to memorialize the legislature of Mississippi under Mr. Walter's resolutions—Col. H. W. Walter, of Holly Springs; Hon. Stephen Cocke, of Abbeville; Col. John Duncan, of Grenada; Col. C. S. Tarpley, of Jackson; Gen. E. L. Acee, of Yallabusha, Miss.

Committee of three to address Congress and the Legislatures of the several Southern, Western, and South-western states, under the resolution offered by the Committee of Ways and Means—James Robb, of New-Orleans; C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, and A. Fowler, of Arkansas.

Committee on Major Ranney's resolution, adopted in the morning—J. H. Ranney, of Louisiana; Philip G. Weaver, of Alabama; John Martin, of Arkansas; M. Landrum, of Florida; Mr. Campbell, of Kentucky; Stephen Brown, of Mississippi; Mr. Chouteau, of Missouri; Mr. Brinckley, of Tennessee; J. T. Mills, of Texas; Mr. Burwell, of Virginia.

The following resolutions were presented by Mr. Henry Chouteau, of Missouri:

Resolved, That the obstructions to the navigation of the Upper Mississippi, caused by the Des Moines and Rock River rapids, are such as to require the immediate action of Congress.

Resolved, That the obstructions to the navigation of the Ohio River at the falls near Louisville, Ky., and the canal around them, need immediate improvement.

Resolved, That the enlargement of said canal, to meet the wants of commerce, deserves the serious and prompt action of our National Legislature.

Resolved, That the Senators and Representatives in Congress be, and they are hereby requested, to bring this subject to the consideration of Congress.

Mr. Isaac E. Morse, of Louisiana, opposed the resolutions. Mr. Hymes supported them. Mr. Chouteau offered an additional resolution in favor of improving the mouths of the Mississippi. Dr. Estes, of Louisiana, offered a resolution in favor of removing the raft in Red River. Mr. Walter, of Mississippi, though in favor of the objects of the resolutions, thought they would injure the objects

of the Convention, and moved that they be laid on the table. The vote by states was called, and resulted as follows:

Yea—Arkansas, Florida, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia—7.

Nay—Georgia and Missouri—2.

Mr. T. G. Morgan, of Louisiana, presented the following preamble and resolutions, and made a motion that they be spread on the minutes, which was carried. [Will be published in another place.]

The following was presented by Judge Campbell, of Louisiana, who moved that it be spread on the minutes, which was adopted: [This is a letter from Gov. A. V. Brown, of Tennessee, which will be published in another place.]

The following preamble and resolutions offered by Mr. J. M. Landrum, of Florida, were adopted: [Will appear in another place.]

Mr. M. B. Sellers, of Louisiana, presented the following, and on his motion, the Secretary was directed to spread it on the minutes. [Will appear in another place.]

The resolutions of Mr. E. L. Acee, of Mississippi, presented this morning, were then taken up, and on motion of Mr. Albert Pike, of Arkansas, laid on the table—Gen. Acee being too ill to discuss them.

The following resolution, offered by J. D. B. De Bow, of Louisiana, was unanimously adopted—viz.: requesting Mr. Burwell, of Virginia, to furnish a copy of his able speech for publication.

Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, presented a resolution, requesting Mr. Robb's speech for publication, which was unanimously adopted, and also offering the thanks of the Convention to Messrs. G. Burke, A. D. Crossman, Mouton, DeBow and Tarpley, of the General Committee, for their assiduous and laborious services.

Mr. J. D. B. De Bow, of Louisiana, presented the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Convention be tendered to Lieut. M. D. Maury, of Washington City; Col. Abert, of the Topographical Engineers; Hon. Edward Bates, of Missouri; Roswell Beebe and Mr. Martin, of Arkansas; Col. Philips, of Alabama; William Gregg, of South Carolina; and Gov. Brown, of Tennessee, for the able and instructive communications addressed by them to the Convention on the objects of its meeting, and that the same be published in the reports of the Convention.

The Convention adjourned *sine die*.

J. CALHOUN, of Louisiana,
JOHN DUNCAN, of Mississippi, } Secretaries.
R. C. FARRELLY, of Arkansas,

The Correspondence, Debates, &c., of the Convention, will be published in our next—illustrated (if we can) by an improved Rail-road Map to date. The one we issued last August, though the best then published, contained several errors and omissions. This could not well have been avoided.—[ED.]

APPENDIX TO CONVENTION PROCEEDINGS.

No. I.

PROJECT OF A RAIL-ROAD FROM VICKSBURG, VIA MONROE AND SHREVEPORT, THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF TEXAS, SUBMITTED BY THE DELEGATION OF NORTHERN LOUISIANA.

REPORT.

This road has been projected for the purpose of developing the northern part of the State of Louisiana, and the northern, eastern, and middle portions of Texas, securing this trade to the city of New-Orleans, and to add another section to a great national road. It will pass through a tier of parishes in this state, containing over four millions of acres of rich, fertile land, fully equal to the best lands in the world for the growth of cotton. The whole of this land is arable, with the exception of a comparatively inconsiderable portion subject to annual inundation. These parishes now produce about 130,000 bags of cotton. Without the aid of a rail-road this amount is not likely to be increased. Indeed, nothing but the unsurpassed fertility of the soil could sustain their present population, in the absence of any other means for getting their produce to market, and obtaining their supplies, than is afforded by small streams of water, unnavigable for many months in the year, and which, at best, meet the demands of a very limited portion of the country in question. Take, as an illustration of this statement, the parish of Caddo, which is more favorably situated for navigation than any other of the northern parishes. For several months during the year just closed the good people of this parish have been six weeks from New-Orleans "in due course of mail." Flour has been selling at \$12 per bbl.; Bacon, 16 cts.; Sugar and Coffee, 12 and 14 cts.; Lard, 25 cts.; and other family supplies in proportion. Merchants have hauled their goods from the Mississippi, in wagons, and commenced selling them about the time their bills, for the purchase of them, began to fall due. Other goods, purchased for the Shreveport market, have been met at New-Orleans, shipped up the Mississippi, and opened at various points on that river, in markets unsuited to their quality, and forced sales made to sustain, if possible, the credit of the purchaser. The whole cotton crop of the parish is at this time under shelter at the gin houses, or locked up in the warehouses at Shreveport, waiting a rise in Red River. These extravagant prices—these ruinous delays—this unnatural course of trade, and general derangement of business calculations, return upon us with the regularity of the business seasons, and must continue to recur so long as our only dependence is upon the uncertain navigation of Red River. Even with all these disadvantages, the fertility of the soil in this parish has induced its rapid settlement. The Indians were removed so late as 1839, and the same year the lands were offered for sale by the government. The parish now contains six thousand slaves. Fifty thousand acres of land have been brought into cultivation; and she will send to market this year, as the produce of her own soil, twelve thousand bags of cotton. Shreveport, which is marked out by its geographical position as the centre of trade, not only for this parish, but for a vast extent of country to the west of it in Texas, has a population of twenty-five hundred inhabitants, and is the second place in the state in point of commercial importance. The trade between Shreveport and New-Orleans already amounts to several millions. But the planters of Caddo parish, and the enterprising merchants of Shreveport, are struggling against adverse circumstances, under the weight of which they must finally yield, unless some scheme is devised for their relief. There are 191,000 acres of uncultivated land in this parish, held by private citizens, and a large amount still unsold by the government. When a fair proportion of this shall have been brought into cultivation, Caddo parish will send one hundred thousand bags of cotton to market. The limits of this report do not permit a detailed statistical statement of each of the parishes through which the road is projected; and we have selected Caddo, because it is about an average parish in size, present wealth, and production—and because more favorably situated than most of the other parishes; the facts, in regard to it, demonstrate the absolute necessity of a rail-road communication with the Mississippi to its continued prosperity. Other parishes, as Bossier, Claiborne, and Bienville, equally fertile in lands, are still more isolated in position, and must remain almost wholly undeveloped and worthless to the state, unless aided by rail-road communication. This road would speedily develop this whole region of country; and if built, it is a very moderate and sober calculation to say, that within six years these parishes would send New-Orleans 400,000 bags cotton. But the fertility of the soil and the trade based upon its produce, are not the only elements of wealth this road will develop. Contiguous to the route are large and extensive forests of valuable pine timber. Upon the water-

courses which unite to form the D'Arbanc, and those which empty into the Dugdemonia, and Black Lake waters, &c., are good water privileges, which may be used to propel machinery. This country is not, therefore, likely to remain entirely rural, but extensive manufactory will spring up along the road, and add another element to the wealth and prosperity of our state. These advantages, so feebly set forth, might be deemed sufficient to engage the attention of this Convention, and secure its favorable notice; but the project looks beyond the limits of our own state, and proposes to penetrate the heart of Texas between the 32d and 33d parallels of latitude, to open up the vast resources of that immense country, and secure to ourselves the advantages which always flow from enlarged views and a liberal policy. Here are thirty organized counties, partially settled, covering as many thousand square miles, and containing not far from twenty millions of acres of land. These counties produce at present about 50,000 bags of cotton. More than half of this is grown in six of these counties, most conveniently situated to the navigation of Red River. The other forty-four counties are engaged chiefly in the stock business, and exported during the past season not far from fifty thousand head of beef cattle, and twenty thousand head of sheep. This business has been found profitable, and is rapidly on the increase. To this may be added for peltries \$200,000, and \$30,000 for beeswax. Some of these counties are erecting mills, and already produce considerable quantities of flour, which, however, is consumed in the country. To find a market, this flour is hauled two and three hundred miles in wagons. Northern Texas is one of the best wheat growing countries on the continent. The average crop is said to be thirty bushels per acre of a very superior quality. And it is worthy of remark, that, aided by the construction of the contemplated rail-road, this country would put down flour in New-Orleans one month earlier than it is possible for any part of the country to do, from which she now draws her supplies. The importations of goods, groceries, and family supplies, into this country, may be determined by the amount of their exports. The wants of this people are so urgent, that their purchases have no other limit, than their ability to pay. In these estimates we have confined ourselves to those counties in Texas—the northern boundary of which reaches beyond the 32d degree of latitude, and which are pretty well advanced in settlement. To our other estimates should be added, a trade carried on with the southern portion of the Indian nations, which now finds a channel through Red River, and amounts at present to about \$200,000, and is susceptible of a large increase. If we look to the extent of this country, and its capabilities of future improvement, we shall see that it can no longer be neglected, unless we are determined to lie down in idleness and poverty, in utter disregard to the sources of wealth which the bounty of Providence has placed within our reach. Probably no other spot upon the globe, of the same extent, contains so large a proportion of rich and fertile land as the region of country of which we are now speaking. The road will scarcely pass over a section of land that will not reward the labor of the husbandman and contribute to its business and support. Who can calculate the future of this country, and tell what it shall be, when its productive resources shall have been fully developed by a judicious system of railways? We have not even mentioned all the known sources of wealth which it contains. In some of the counties are extensive quarries of limestone, mines of salt, stone-coal, and iron ore; and not far beyond the western limit of the country indicated, are mountains, said to abound in the precious metals, silver, gold, and platinum. The natural advantages of this country are becoming more generally known; and there is, in consequence, an immense tide of emigration pouring into it at the present season; and not only is the number of emigrants very much increased, but they are of a better class, and take with them a much larger amount of negro property. So that the population, wealth, produce, and trade of this country are increasing in an arithmetical ratio. A very large proportion of the cotton grown in these counties is sent to this city at an average cost of \$4 per bag. In most of the counties the cost of transporting cotton to market so far exceeds the profits of planting that it is not attempted; and should the present low prices continue, and the building of this road be delayed a few years, planting will be abandoned, and the negroes removed near the Gulf in western Texas. These people receive their supplies at the same heavy cost for transportation, and this double tax necessarily makes them very small consumers.

There is another view which the undersigned have taken of this route. It is projected on the same line of latitude with Charleston, Montgomery, Vicksburg, Monroe, Shreveport, Marshall, Dallas, El Paso, and San Diego. If ever the Atlantic is connected with the Pacific by railway, it must be upon this line. No other route presents so few obstacles, or combines so many advantages. It is central in geographical position, crosses the continent at the narrowest point, is far enough south to avoid the snows and frosts of winter, and far enough north to strike the rivers which empty into the gulf at practicable crossings. It will best accommodate the different parts of the country: and to it cities, and states, north, east, and south, must all come, who seek to connect themselves with the trade of California. When the connection shall have been formed between Jackson and Montgomery, this great central road will be connected with all the principal cities in the United States: and, like the great central artery of the human body, it will infuse life and vigor into every one of its branches, and animate with health the remotest members of this great confederated body of states. The section of this route, which more immediately

engages the attention of the undersigned, is deemed entirely practicable. Steps have been taken to procure a survey of the route; but as this has not been done, we are happy to be able to lay before the Convention the opinion of Professor Forshey, given in the correspondence below.

"NEW-ORLEANS, January 5th, 1852.

"DEAR SIR,

"You are informed that the friends of internal improvement in the northern part of Louisiana, have projected a rail-road from Vicksburg across the state, by way of Monroe and Shreveport. The information which has been collected, leads the friends of the road to believe that no great difficulties present themselves on the route, and that taking the whole line together, it will be an easy one. You are also aware that, by orders of the government, a route has been surveyed, quite recently, from Lake Providence to Fulton, and it is understood a low estimate has been made of the cost of this road. I believe you once surveyed the route to Alexandria, a little lower down than Monroe. You also have intimate knowledge of this whole region of country.

"Will you be good enough to inform me what is your opinion of the practicability of the proposed route? And, if it will not trouble you too much, furnish a rough estimate of the probable cost of the road?

"Have the friends of this enterprise selected the best route to cross the state, and develop the resources of the northern parishes? Or is there any better or more practicable route?

"Your early attention to this is solicited, and will much oblige the undersigned, and many, the friends of internal improvement in our state.

"Very respectfully, &c.,

"C. G. YOUNG."

"CARROLLTON, LA., January 6th, 1852.

"DR. C. G. YOUNG,

"DEAR SIR—Your note of yesterday is at hand, asking my opinion in regard to the practicability of constructing a rail-road from Shreveport, on the Red River, to Vicksburg, on the Mississippi, via Monroe on the Ouachita.

"The questions you ask I shall answer, as I suppose, of course, they were intended purely as a professional matter, without entering into questions regarding its utility, which are, doubtless, better understood by yourselves than I could present them.

"I answer as to practicability, that there is on the whole route nothing approaching very near to the impracticable.

"This line would be 180 miles long, and would keep within ten miles of the same parallel, namely, latitude thirty-two degrees thirty minutes, all the way.

"Commencing on the east bank of Red River, opposite to Shreveport, the best route would cross the Bayou Bodcan, below the lake, two or three miles, and pursue a line, nearly direct, to Minden, on the Dauchete: thence deflecting a little northward, to avoid the broken lands about the head waters of the Black Lake Bayou, it would pursue the summit ridge nearly due east, between the waters of the D'Arbonne on the north, and the Dugedemonia and Castor on the south; and without crossing a single stream large enough to have a name, in 75 miles, would reach the Ouachita river, opposite Monroe, in precisely the same latitude with Shreveport.

"From Monroe, the best line would continue eastward, not far from the township line of T. 7, 8, north, crossing the Lafourche Bayou and Boeuf River, a little south of the extreme south corner of the Bastrop Grant, the Bayou Macon, and Joe's Bayou, in the middle of T. 7, and thence run along the bank of the latter to the nearest bend of the Tensas river: along the bank of the Tensas, and across its bend, the line would cross that river at or near the north line of T. 6, and the Roundaway Bayou at Richmond, north of the mouth of Walnut Bayou; and thence eastward, the line would reach the river bank, on the Mississippi, at some place between Young's Point and the estate of General Dunlap—thence it would keep near the bank of the river to a point opposite Vicksburg.

"The greatest difficulties on this route are not in the construction of a railway track upon firm ground, without any considerable excavation or embankment. This may be done at the minimum, or near the minimum cost of railway construction. The abundance of timber on the way at nearly every portion of the line, and the slight grades required, give ample assurance of this.

"The true difficulties consist, first, in the bridges or crossings of several large streams; and, second, in the character of the overflowed region to be crossed.

"1st. There will be five first class bridges to be constructed on the route; and if built in such substantial manner, as are common on similar streams, they must cost a sum equal to about six miles of road each; and three bridges of the second class, equal each to two miles of road, which may be estimated in all as increasing the cost of the whole road above the minimum, a sum not less than \$350,000.

"The next difficulty is a much less one as to increased cost. It would require that the

road should be built on tressel-work, through the Lafourche swamp, through Bayou Macon and Tensas swamps, a distance which I cannot venture to name without an actual survey.

" But this necessity results from the direction of the route, which is at right angles to the trend of the alluvial planes, and hence across the drainage. Continuous embankments cannot be constructed without manifest injury to the drainage of the country.

" Tressel-work, for elevations of 3 to 6 feet, would increase the minimum cost of the road about 20 per cent. per mile, for the number of miles so constructed. It is a vague estimate, but I suppose that \$50,000 would be a sufficient sum to meet this contingency.

" According to this estimate, it may be assumed in general terms, that

180 miles, rail-road track, culverts and stations.....	1,800,000
8 bridges, first and second class.....	350,000
20 miles tressel-work, &c.	50,000
Total probable cost of the road.	1,200,000 \$2,200,000

" I must beg, my dear sir, that you will take these as crude opinions, based upon a very good knowledge of the country, true, but without any surveys upon the route you designate; and I would not be willing to have these opinions arrayed against any others resulting from careful surveys in the future, made by myself or other competent engineers.

" Very faithfully your obedient servant,

" CALEB G. FORSHAY,
" Civil Engineer."

The government of the United States is interested in a most direct and unmistakable manner in the construction of this road. Its treaty stipulations with Mexico, and its obligations to protect its own citizens, require a line of military posts to be kept up on the frontiers of Texas and Mexico. Five regiments of soldiers are now stationed upon these lines, and the number will probably be increased this winter to eight. The transportation of supplies to these stations will make a heavy drain upon the treasury of the United States, and render indispensable a considerable increase in the appropriations for the army. From data furnished the undersigned from reliable sources, they have been enabled to form such estimates as to place it beyond doubt, that the mere freight and transportation of supplies to these stations will cost the government more than a million of dollars annually. We are aware that this statement will startle persons unacquainted with the difficulties of the country. But the estimate is below the actual cost. The Secretary of War mentions that more than forty dollars has been paid on the transportation of a barrel of flour. In one instance the government engaged man to haul supplies from St. Antonio to El Paso, at \$16 50, who threw up the contract as a bad bargain.

There are other ways in which the federal government will be profited. With the facilities which the road would afford for concentrating her forces, the country may give its citizens a far more efficient protection with a reduced number of soldiers. Indeed, a rail-road would develop a population which, in a few years, would supersede the necessity of keeping up these stations at all. This was the effect in our own state of opening the navigation of Red River. More than this, the same population would become consumers of imported goods, paying duty, and thus the road will augment the revenue of the government, at the same time that it lessens its expenditures. The people along this road are alive to the subject. Enthusiastic meetings have been held in many of the parishes in northern Louisiana, and the counties mentioned in Texas, in all of which the people have passed resolutions in favor of its immediate construction. In addition, large conventions have been held in Shreveport, Monroe, Marshall, and Palestine, in which delegates representing quite a number of parishes and counties have conferred, and united in giving expression to the public sentiment. Such is the state of feeling upon the subject, that private citizens have offered to donate a portion of their land to secure the building of the road. In submitting this report, the undersigned would conclude it by recommending the construction of this road, as important to a numerous people, inhabiting a large and extensive region of country, prolific in sources of wealth, situated in northern Louisiana, in middle, western, northern, and eastern Texas. That it is important to the city of New-Orleans, as opening a channel through which she may secure to herself almost the entire trade of the country in question—a trade which at present amounts to several millions, and which is susceptible of an indefinite increase. The interest which the undersigned feels upon this subject induces a pause here—to observe that the position which New-Orleans now occupies, in regard to this trade, is one of peril. Unless some artificial means be devised to facilitate and cheapen transportation to and from that portion of this country lying west of Shreveport, its entire trade will soon be diverted into other channels.

We have reason to believe that Texas will look with favor upon this route. It has already been mentioned that a large number of her most populous counties have held meetings and passed resolutions in favor of it, and instructed their representatives accordingly. We have also reason to believe that Texas will not permit her territory to be penetrated by a rail-road on the east, south of the 32d degree of latitude, and she will look with indifference upon any project that does not connect her by a direct line with the Mississippi River. To do this, the road must cross Red River at Shreveport, for there is no other practicable crossing for more than three hundred miles. A road through the extreme northern portion of Texas, to Little Rock and Memphis, might, indeed, cross the river at Fulton. This road has already been spoken of. It is an important route, and will, no doubt, ultimately be built, but it can never compete for the transportation of cotton with a road running to Vicksburg. But to return. The information already given in this report, touching the nature of the country through which it shall run, shows this road to be important to the city of New-Orleans, as opening up to her a new and abundant source, from which she may supply herself with beef, mutton, flour, and other articles of living, of a superior quality, at reduced prices, whereby she may greatly cheapen the expenses of living of her citizens, and reduce the price of fare at her hotels and boarding-houses, which will operate to produce a rapid increase of her population, both transient and permanent. This road is important to the state of Louisiana, because it will procure the settlement of four millions of acres of her vacant land, and add within a few years twenty millions to the amount of her taxable property. It is important to the federal government, because it will save her half a million annually in the cost of transporting supplies to her soldiers on the frontiers of Texas and Mexico. Finally, this road is deemed important to all sections of the country, as forming a part of that great central trunk, which shall belt the continent, and with which all other roads on the continent must connect, to perfect the system.

C. G. YOUNG,
Chairman of the Delegation from Northern Louisiana.

No. II.

THE COMMITTEE TO WHOM WAS REFERRED THE QUESTION OF A SYSTEM
OF RAIL-ROADS FOR ARKANSAS, BEG LEAVE TO REPORT—

Arkansas, in point of territorial extent, is larger than any southern state; Texas alone excepted, embracing in its limits an area of over 50,000 square miles, or 33,000,000 of acres. Her soil is one of unsurpassed fertility; the northern portion of the state, from its climate, being admirably adapted to the production of provisions, with the capacity to produce them to an unlimited extent; also embracing a belt of mineral region, rich in anthracite and bituminous coal, lead, zinc, copper, gypsum, manganese, silver and gold—needing only an outlet by rail-road to the Mississippi River, to make it a more profitable mining district than California itself, while the southern part of the state is safer for heavy crops of cotton than any other portion of the South. This is established, beyond all question, by years of experience;—further south, the crop has become a precarious one, from casualty produced by the caterpillar, boll worm, grub, or cut worm. West, there is not rain enough more than one year in four, and in other states of the same parallel east, the soil is exhausted.

But Arkansas, with all that Nature has done for her, is far behind her neighbors in improvements, population, and general prosperity. It is a source of humiliation to your committee to make these acknowledgments; but the truth should be told, "though the heavens fall."

The cause of this state of things, to the intelligent resident of Arkansas, who has understood her general state policy, is no mystery. She was admitted into the Union prematurely, before she had the basis of wealth and population upon which to raise a revenue to support a state government; consequently she was forced to resort to some financial scheme to raise the deficit. The State and Real Estate Banks were chartered, and the endorsement of the state placed on \$3,500,000 of their bonds; they both suspended in the general crash of 1837; and since then have not more than managed to keep the debt down to the original amount. This constitutes the state debt of Arkansas, and the whole is set down as state liability. The state is undoubtedly liable for the entire debt; but there is still a valuable asset in the banks, consisting in notes, and in bonds and mortgages on large tracts of the most valuable lands in the state; and should these lands be affected by rail-roads, as lands have been every where else, there is but little doubt that before the maturity of the bonds in 1862, the debt will be paid by the bank asset. At

present valuation they would pay the debt down to \$1,500,000. This, then, is the actual debt of the state—an amount for which she is at present unable to provide, but insignificant when viewed prospectively, and can easily be provided for, after a correct system of rail-roads shall have developed our vast natural resources.

As yet, private enterprise has done nothing efficient towards a system of rail-road; and the state, as shown above, is not in a condition that her credit can be made available, as in other states, to assist in projects of improvement. But an awakening spirit, on this subject, has recently manifested itself; and the important inquiry is heard on every hand, cannot Arkansas do something towards a general system of rail-road improvement?

Private enterprise and capital stand ready to act to the full extent of their ability; yet in the present advancement of Arkansas this is not sufficient, at least so far as capital is concerned, to prosecute to completion the system necessary. The only resources we have in addition are from capitalists in other states, and the liberality of the general government in making donations of lands for rail-road purposes. We think we present more than ordinary claims on the government, in our proposition to point our improvements toward the Indian country. These Indian tribes are under the protection of the government; large quantities of specie to the amount of millions, have annually to be transported at great risk, and frequently at heavy expense, (land carriage having to be used,) to pay the Indian annuities—besides troops and munitions of war have to be sent there to keep in proper subjection the turbulent spirit of the various tribes. Besides, a direct line of rail-roads, penetrating the Indian country, would do more to civilize and Christianize them, than millions spent in the usual missionary efforts. With this view, we see the general government is directly peculiarly interested in our rail-roads, as well as philanthropically, and possesses the same interest in ours that she does in the roads running through other new states. A donation for so much land on each side of the road, with the privilege of floating for it, would enable Arkansas to do much towards completing her roads.

In the selection of a starting point on the Mississippi River, we find central on the eastern border of the state the high lands touch the Mississippi at Helena; and it is a fact that may not be generally known, that this is the only point from Cape Jéridon to the Balize, where the high lands touch the Mississippi on its western bank. And by reference to the operations of the states on the east bank of the Mississippi, we find that all their rail-roads point to the bluffs for their termini: instance Memphis, Vicksburg, Natchez, and other places. This, of itself, is conclusive that high land points ought to be selected for our termini, in preference to swamp and overflowed ones, when they can be had.

Then, if we adopt Helena (the only practicable place) as the starting point of our system, we find the projected road from there to Little Rock to pass over a plain country, already a grade above overflow, (with the exception of four miles of White River bottom,) rich and fertile, with timber of the best kind for the superstructure, and with no cost for the right of way. Taking this as the first section of the main trunk for the system for Arkansas, we know of no road, in the South or West, that offers such inducements to capitalists for safe and profitable investment. This road, a distance of 110 miles, can be constructed with a T rail of 58 lbs. to the yard, at a cost of \$1,000,000.

We think we risk nothing, when we base an estimate on 30,000 through passengers the first year; this, at \$6 each, gives us \$180,000, with the certainty of an annual increase to an ultimate extent that now baffles calculation.

When we take into consideration the large extent of country that will send its produce to market over this road, and receive in return its merchandise, we at once set down the freight receipts as more than sufficient to pay the expenses and repairs; giving the receipts from passengers as profit, making 18 per cent. on the investment. And when the contemplated extensions and laterals are constructed, it will pay to an extent that ought to satisfy the most avaricious. It will also possess the advantage that, for years at least, it can have no rival. The enormous cost, and uncertainty in investment, over an overflowed bottom, will prevent any rival route from being constructed, giving to this the benefits of all the trade and travel of northern, western, and southern Arkansas; also, of south Missouri, northeastern Texas and the Indian country, without saying anything of its being a part and parcel of the great Southern Pacific Rail-road.

From Little Rock an extension should be made to some point on Red River to meet the Texas roads pointing east—also, another from the same place, by way of Van Buren to Fort Smith, to be ultimately extended into the Indian country—a country of vast extent, and possessing, according to the report of Lieutenant Marcy, the elements to make it, in proper hands, one of the finest agricultural countries that God ever made. And however much the philanthropist may regret it, he can but see that this vast region must ultimately be possessed by the white race!—be brought into cultivation, and made to play its part in support of civilization. The Indians will be forced to retire to the vast plain country of the west—a country peculiarly adapted to their migratory, hunting dispositions.

At some point, a few miles west of White River, a branch ought to leave the main

trunk, and following up the waters of the White River, and crossing it at or near Batesville, continue a north course, running through the fine agricultural and mineral region of North Arkansas and Southern Missouri. This will constitute the system of main trunk roads for the state. So soon as they are completed, branches will be run out at various points, tapping the different basins, and giving to each section of the state facilities of direct rail-road communication with the Mississippi River.

Objections have been urged against Helena as the eastern terminus, for the system for Arkansas, because it does not communicate directly with the roads now in process of construction from Memphis to the southern Atlantic cities. This objection is found, on investigation, to be trivial in its character, for to all those wishing to communicate with Memphis they are offered an uninterrupted navigation, for first-class steamers, from Helena to Memphis, which can be run in five hours, making a difference of time between Little Rock direct to Memphis, and by way of Helena and the river, of not more than three hours.

By way of New-Orleans is the natural outlet for Arkansas products; and when other things are equal, her artificial lines of communication (as her rivers do) ought to point to New-Orleans. With her, Arkansas is allied by contiguity, association, and similarity of institutions, and nothing but the most perfect apathy on the part of New-Orleans can dissever this unity of interest; but without New-Orleans will take hold and act liberally, the southern Atlantic cities will unite Arkansas with them by iron bonds, and then hold her as in the hooks of steel. Memphis, Nashville, Charleston and Savannah: and last, though not least, Mobile, is beginning to bid for Arkansas trade, by proposing the construction of roads to cross the Mississippi at Memphis, and even 100 miles above these; and if New-Orleans sleeps on a few years longer, she may awake, but it will be with a spasmodic effort, and she will quickly relapse again into the sleep of death, as in that time all the elements of her vitality will be taken from her by her more enterprising sisters, Mobile, Savannah, and Charleston.

Should it be found necessary at any future day to connect the Arkansas roads directly with the roads east of the Mississippi, it can be done at much less expense by crossing the river at Helena than at any other point, and connect with the New-Orleans and Nashville road at Holly Springs, Helena being on nearly an air line from Little Rock to Holly Springs. The difficulties of crossing the bottom opposite Helena are less than at any other point, in the knowledge of your committee.

In conclusion, your committee, feeling that all the statistical information necessary to stimulate the southern states to action, will go before the country in other reports upon roads, exciting now more attention if not of more ultimate utility, and through the address that this Convention will send forth, will only in a few words urge the importance of prompt and efficient action upon the rail-road subject in all sections of the South.

Our glorious confederacy has just passed through a critical period of her history. But recently the elements of discord were aroused and excited to a degree that made the heart of the patriot to quail: but by the combined effort of the distinguished men of both parties in Congress, oil was poured on the troubled waters, and peace and harmony were restored to our threatened and distressed country. But the struggle should teach us a lesson, and prompt us to go to work, and render ourselves independent of the North, and in no way can we do this so effectually as by opening all the artificial lines of communication, that may be necessary to develop our country. On the heels of our roads manufacturing enterprises will spring up, and then we may proclaim our independence. We will be dependent on the North for nothing; the North will be dependent on us for our cotton and sugar; and as we always treat freemen as freemen, we will treat our fellow-citizens of the North as brothers of the same great confederacy; they having no power over us, will have no motive to treat us in any other way. Then we can live together in peace, and go on to demonstrate the great problem of man's capacity for self-government, and let our example have its influence on the rotten monarchical governments of the old world: and there exert, by the moral of our course, an influence beneficial to the freedom of the world.

All of which is submitted.

JOHN MARTIN, Chairman.

Therefore, *Resolved*—That the rail-road system we have proposed for Arkansas, is a necessary link in the chain of the system for the South; and that from the direct as well as incidental benefits that the general government must derive by the construction of a part of the main trunks, that her aid is especially invoked by this Convention, in a liberal donation of lands, to be granted directly to the companies that are or may be formed for their construction, and that her usual course of donating only the public lands on the line of road ought in this instance to be deviated from, and the privilege granted of floating for quantity, on any of the public lands in the state.

No. III.

RAIL-ROADS IN PROGRESS OF CONSTRUCTION, AND PROJECTED, IN MISSOURI.

The Atlantic and Pacific Rail-road (being a continuation of the rail-roads from Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and other cities on the Atlantic coast, westward through the states of New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois) commencing at St. Louis, on the Mississippi River, and running thence south-westwardly to the western limit of the state of Missouri, with the expectation that the same will be continued across the plains to California and the Pacific Ocean.

The Hannibal and St. Joseph Rail-road, connecting with Chicago and the Great Lakes, commencing at Hannibal, on the Mississippi River, and terminating at the town of St. Joseph, on the Missouri River, with the expectation that the same will be extended so as to intersect the Atlantic and Pacific Rail-road.

These two roads have been commenced under very favorable auspices, and are now in progress of erection.

The Missouri Central Rail-road, commencing at St. Louis, and running north-westwardly to Jefferson City, Boonville and Lexington, on the Missouri River, and extending to the town of Kansas at the mouth of the Kansas River, with the expectation that the same will intersect the Atlantic and Pacific Rail-road.

The Iron Mountain Rail-road, commencing at the city of St. Louis, thence to the Iron Mountain, in a southern direction, and continuing in that course to intersect like improvements in the state of Arkansas, in order to connect with the Southern Pacific Rail-road.

The South-western Rail-road, commencing at the city of Cape Girardeau on the Mississippi River, to the city of Boonville on the Missouri River.

HENRY CHOUTEAU,
Delegate from St. Louis, Missouri.

New-Orleans, 6th January, 1852.

No. IV.

FLORIDA.

Whereas Georgia, with her vast system of internal improvements, has already stretched her iron lines to within a short distance of the Chattahoochee—and a bill is now before the legislature of that state to insure the completion of the South-western Rail-road from Macon to Eufaula, Fort Gaines, or other point on said river; it is therefore expedient that, to complete the chain of roads from the seaboard of the Atlantic to the Gulf, a line commencing at the point at which the South-western Road will terminate, running thence to the waters of Pensacola Bay, should be established.

The distance of this proposed railway is about 140 miles, passing through the counties of Barbour, Pike, Covington, and Conecuh, in Alabama, and Santa Rosa in Florida, over a country admirably adapted for the purpose.

There are no large streams to cross; and the lands, for a great portion of the way, require but little grading—it can, therefore, be built at less than the ordinary cost of roads in the South. The advantages to be derived by New-Orleans and the states bordering on the Gulf, from the completion of this road, are great.

A daily line of steamers, from the terminus to the city, would bring a great portion of the Atlantic and Pacific travel hither—the cotton-growing region of Alabama, Florida, and Georgia, in the vicinity of the route, would make this their great mart; in return, they would receive the products of Louisiana, and those of the broad West; therefore New-Orleans would be benefited by this route, and the roads which she proposes strengthened by the connection. The link, to complete the chain, could be made; and the states bordering on the Gulf would feel the benefits of its influence, before other more extended routes can be completed. It would open a district of country, where lands are now comparatively valueless, which would be of great advantage to our national government.

Government, having spent millions for the naval station at Pensacola, should encourage this enterprise, as it will be found necessary to secure every facility for her great improvements. The power possessing the harbor of Pensacola, as a rendezvous in time of war, holds complete control over the trade and commerce of the Gulf. Hence, a vast amount has been wisely expended in constructing fortifications at the entrance of the bay, and that point must ever be one of great importance in time of war. And as the

South-western Rail-road of Georgia have determined to seek a continuation of their line to some point on the Gulf of Mexico—

Therefore, be it *Resolved*, That the projected road from the terminus of the South-western Road of Georgia, to the waters of Pensacola Bay, would greatly promote the interests of the South, and receive the cordial sanction of this Convention.

2d. *Resolved*, That we earnestly recommend to the favorable consideration of the national government, this railway, as one which will be highly important to the naval station at Pensacola, and to the security of the increasing commerce of the Southwest.

3d. *Resolved*, That the members in Congress, from the several states, are solicited to use their efforts to obtain suitable grants of the public domain for this connecting link between the Atlantic and the Gulf, and for all similar purposes of public enterprise and improvement.

No. V.

BATON ROUGE PROJECT.

Whereas, at the South-western Rail-road Convention, held in the city of New-Orleans in the month of April, 1851, a report was made by the committee on plans and projects, in which it is stated that "the distance from New-Orleans to Jackson via Pontchartrain Rail-road, Lake Pontchartrain and Madisonville, is 173 miles, of which distance about 30 miles will be steam ferry. By the located line of the old Nashville Rail-road, the distance is 192 miles. By a route recently surveyed by Mr. Phelps, passing above Lake Maurepas, the distance will be about 200 miles; and by a proposed line up the river to the vicinity of Baton Rouge, the distance from New-Orleans to Jackson will be about 213 miles. The latter route avoids difficult swamps, extensive draw-bridges across navigable streams, and passes through a fertile and well-improved country. The majority of the committee are of opinion that the road via Baton Rouge may be constructed in the most substantial manner from New-Orleans to Jackson for two millions of dollars, and that the shorter lines would not cost materially less. The cost of the road from the state line of Louisiana to the town of Jackson will be the same on either route, and may be estimated separately at one million of dollars!"

And whereas the said proposed route presents advantages, certainly not to be overlooked, in entering upon a vast system of internal improvements, in which it is confidently expected all the energies of the state and of the people of the state will be promptly and efficiently enlisted:

These advantages being—

1st. That throughout its whole course such road will pass through a densely populated and fertile country, the inhabitants whereof are not only able but willing to contribute liberally for the formation of the road.

2d. That by touching the Mississippi at the city of Baton Rouge, easy and speedy communication can at all seasons of the year, and under all circumstances, be had with the city of New-Orleans.

3d. That in the event of an overflow of the River Mississippi at any point between the cities of New-Orleans and Baton Rouge, a rail-road, whether passing the latter place, or diverging from the River Mississippi, so as to cross the River Amite near its entrance into Lake Maurepas, or to cross the pass between Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, must be liable to destruction, or at least to great damage; and therefore it is highly desirable that the road now proposed to be constructed should touch the River Mississippi at a point not liable to inundation, in order that there may under no circumstances be any delay or interruption in the transportation of passengers and freights to New-Orleans.

4th. That by extending the road from New-Orleans to Baton Rouge, along or near the bank of the River Mississippi to Baton Rouge, it will have the advantage of passing over the highest lands, avoiding swamps, and not liable to any obstruction or damage from overflows, not common to the other routes proposed.

5th. That the route via Baton Rouge, passing from that place towards the city of Jackson, Mississippi, over a comparatively high country, free from swamps, not traversed by large streams, and at the same time not requiring excavations or embankments to any considerable extent, can be constructed at less expense than one passing through a low country, where many and extensive swamps must be encountered, and several navigable streams must be bridged.

6th. That the corporation now proposed to be created, can avail itself of the work done by the Baton Rouge and Clinton Rail-road Company, which consists in opening the proposed route about thirty miles or upwards, cutting off the timber a width of one hundred and twenty feet, preparing the road for laying the superstructure for about fourteen miles, digging out all stumps and sorts, cutting ditches on each side of the road, and throwing the earth into the centre, so that at the present time the superstructure can be laid for that distance without any considerable expense, and the course of said road being on a direct line towards Jackson, Mississippi.

7th. That passing through the populous, fertile, and productive parishes of East Baton Rouge, and East Feliciana, in Louisiana, and the county of Amite, Mississippi, each mile of the road would produce revenue as soon as it is constructed.

8th. That the inhabitants of the parishes of East Baton Rouge and East Feliciana will promptly and cheerfully contribute a sum sufficient to construct such road through their borders, the evidence of which is the fact that, after the adjournment of the Convention, held in April last, near one hundred thousand dollars was subscribed by the inhabitants of Baton Rouge and its vicinity in three days, and no doubt thrice that amount can readily be obtained, should the road take the course indicated.

9th. That there being no obstruction to navigation between the cities of New-Orleans and Baton Rouge at any season of the year, the passengers and the produce of the countries through which a road is proposed to pass, would at all times reach the great commercial metropolis of the South-west without detention, and without any additional expense.

10th. That the difference in distance between the route passing to the west of Lake Maurepas and that passing by the city of Baton Rouge, will not exceed twenty miles, and the expense of construction will not exceed that of the shorter lines.

One other view, we conceive, may with propriety be presented to your consideration. By taking the route we propose, the road will reach a point on the River Mississippi opposite the Bayou La Fourche, and from thence may be constructed the great road leading through the parishes situate on that Bayou, and thence through the counties of Attakapas and Opelousas to the Sabine River, at such point as may meet the desires of Texas. By so doing we will avoid the interruptions that may occur by breaches in the levee on the west bank of the river below the Lafourche, and save the expense of constructing many miles of road. If to this it is objected, that all passengers and freights must be transported across the river at Donaldsonville, the reply is, that if the road is continued on the west bank of the river to Algiers, still you must cross it to reach New-Orleans, and the expense and delay of crossing at the one point cannot be greater than at the other. We all concede that New-Orleans is, and of necessity must be, the great commercial mart of the South-west and West. We do not, therefore, seek to supplant her—we seek to enter into no invidious rivalry with her, but we do seek to conduct as much as possible to her advancement, considering that by so doing we advocate our own best interests.

Therefore be it resolved,

1st. That the Committee on Routes be instructed to take the said route into consideration, and report thereon.

2d. That in the opinion of this Convention it is of vital importance to construct a road by which the River Mississippi can be reached at a point, between which and the city of New-Orleans there are no obstructions to navigation, and which would insure a safe, speedy, and cheap transportation of passengers and products to the city of New-Orleans at all seasons of the year, and without danger of delay from inundations of the alluvial country, by the breaking of levees, or the opening of the Bayou Manchac.

3d. That it will be the true policy of the state of Louisiana and of the city of New-Orleans to construct the proposed rail-road through a country, practicable, populous, fertile, and wealthy, rather than through a difficult, sparsely-populated, and unproductive part of the country, even although the distance and expense may be somewhat increased.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the delegation from East Baton Rouge, by

THOMAS GIBBES MORGAN.

No. VI.

MISSISSIPPI ROUTES.

The undersigned begs leave to submit to the General Committee on Routes, the following report in support of the resolutions offered by him to the Convention in relation to a system of railway running from the city of New-Orleans through the State of Mississippi.—It cannot be doubted, that the system proposed by the resolutions, when completed, would not only be of incalculable benefit to the citizens of Mississippi and Louisiana, but would also afford to the city of New-Orleans a full and complete communication with all the rail-roads east of the Mississippi River. The undersigned believes that he cannot do greater justice to the present condition and general importance of the Brandon and Montgomery Rail-road, than was done it in a report made upon the subject, by a delegation of the citizens of Vicksburg, at the R. R. Convention, held in this city in April last. That delegation stated, "that this road is to extend from Jackson, Mississippi, to Montgomery, and will connect at Selma with the Alabama and Tennessee River Rail-road, by which, and the roads now under contract, and in contemplation, a continuous railway communication will be opened through Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio, with the lakes; and through Tennessee and Virginia, with the Atlantic and northern

states, and at Montgomery will connect with the rail-roads running east through Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina. It will pass in the state of Mississippi entirely through the counties of Rankin, Scott, Newton, and Lauderdale; and in Alabama, before it reaches Selma, one of the termini of the Alabama and Tennessee River Rail-road, it will pass through Sumter, Marengo, Perry, and Dallas counties. Nearly all these, and the contiguous counties, both north and south, now haul in wagons their cotton and other articles of export to the Tombigbee and Alabama Rivers, and ship thence to Mobile. The counties of Sumter, Marengo, Green, Perry, and Dallas, produce annually about 150,000 bales of cotton, all of which now goes to Mobile, but much of which will probably be turned to New-Orleans by means of this road. In fact, nearly all the products of East Mississippi and Western Alabama, and their supplies for that region of country, will probably find their way on this road, and the branch extending through the north-eastern part of Mississippi. The southern route then will become the great thoroughfare of northern and eastern travel. It will develop the mineral resources of North Alabama. Its rich and inexhaustible mines of iron are now worked in spite of the difficulties of getting to a market; and it will create and open a way to trade, the vast extent of which cannot be too highly estimated. We think it within bounds to assert, that 200,000 bales of cotton will come over this road, and the branch extending through the north-eastern portion of Mississippi to New-Orleans, not one bale of which now ever reaches it. Detailed estimates, made by an engineer who has surveyed the route from Brandon to the Alabama line, of the amount required for the completion of the road that far, are in our possession, and may be set down in round numbers at one million of dollars. If New-Orleans were to pay the whole cost of building the road that far, it would return to her in the increase of trade alone, without estimating the other advantages, a handsome profit upon the investment. But there are inducements to render the stock of this road valuable, that are not presented to any other rail-road in the United States. From Jackson to Brandon—fourteen miles and a-half—the road is completed and in profitable operation. These fourteen and a-half miles, with the cars, locomotives, fixtures, depots, town lots, &c. attached to the road; sixty choice and picked negroes; the two per cent. fund now on hand, being about \$12,000, and that which may hereafter be received, now the property of the State of Mississippi, and valued on a careful estimate by the President of the Southern Rail-road, including the grading east of Brandon, at \$378,000, are all offered by a recent act of the legislature, as a bonus for the organization of this company, and the completion of the road to the Alabama line in six years. This act was passed in 1850, and provides that the whole property shall come into possession of the company so soon as twenty miles of the road beyond Brandon shall be finished. To organize the company requires a subscription of \$500,000 of stock, with a cash payment of \$50,000, immediately upon which the company becomes the owner of nearly half a million of valuable and active property. This statement shows of itself a conclusive inducement to take stock in this road, and renders it absolutely certain that it will be valuable."

Your undersigned fully concur in the opinion expressed in the foregoing report, that this road is of incalculable importance to New-Orleans. By it, so soon as the Jackson and New-Orleans Rail-road is completed, an inland highway of commerce and travel is at once effected between New-Orleans and the whole of the south-eastern portion of the United States; by it an immediate junction is effected with the great system of rail-roads in Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina. By this road, in connection with the Selma, the Hiwassee, and South Valley rail-roads, New-Orleans will find her most direct and speedy route to the whole of the north-eastern and eastern portion of the Republic. By it a connection is made with the Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-road, and thus will New-Orleans be placed in immediate contact with Louisville, Cincinnati, and the lakes. Your undersigned does not deem it necessary to add more upon this subject, than simply to say, that a large portion of the stock in this road has already been taken by citizens of Mississippi, and that a little assistance from New-Orleans will, in a short time, place the work, throughout its whole length, in process of construction.

In reference to the New-Orleans and Nashville road, the undersigned can add but little, if anything, to what has already been said or written in its favor. For nearly twenty years this road has been the favored project of New-Orleans, Nashville, and the intermediate points. It has enlisted to its support the talent and ability of the states of Louisiana, Tennessee, and Mississippi. But its advocates might now find in this Convention the most forcible and *visible* argument in its favor that could possibly be presented. The seats prepared for the delegates from Nashville, Cincinnati, Pittsburg, and St. Louis, are now vacant. They speak in mute eloquence to the reason and judgment of this Convention. They seem cold and cheerless, like the icy chains that hold back their occupants. A warning whisper is heard from them to this city, and they tell her that the greatest exporting commercial emporium of the New World may well fear for her future destiny, when the winter's frost or the summer's drought can bar her from the sources of her wealth and power. New-Orleans has listened to this warning, and she is sensible of the importance of this work. This road would bring to this city, for the present, more commerce and traffic than any other branch of her contemplated system of railways. It penetrates one of the most extensive, rich, and fertile portions of the State of Mississippi. The commerce of the Tombigbee valley, along which this road will run for a considerable

distance, is worth more than ten million of dollars annually. This valley, with all its wealth, population, and resources, is now the forced tributary of Mobile. The construction of this road will give to that commerce a new direction, and place it upon the wharves of New-Orleans. Not only is the commerce of this section of country considerable, but it presents inducements for the construction of a road that can scarcely be found in combination on any other route. Its population is wealthy, industrious, and public-spirited. Its prairie surface is so level, that grading would scarcely be required for some seventy miles. Nature seems almost to have prepared it for the superstructure of the railway. New-Orleans must certainly be false to her best interests, if she neglects this road thus piercing a country, presenting an inviting surface for its track, wealth to construct, and commerce to support it. What has been said of Mississippi may with equal propriety be applied to Tennessee. This road would penetrate the wealthiest section of the latter state. It would call back to this city the highly valuable commerce of Middle Tennessee, which is now seeking a market at Charleston. The cotton, wheat, tobacco, provisions, and mineral products of that section of the country, would be transported over this road, and with the cotton and trade from Mississippi, would actually add to the commerce of New-Orleans, in value, not less than twenty millions of dollars annually. Much of the light but valuable commerce of Nashville, about to pass by Chattanooga to Charleston, will be retained for your city. The merchant and citizen of Nashville must find a more speedy and *certain* route to his exporting and importing city than that afforded by the uncertain navigation of the Cumberland River. If this road is not constructed, Nashville will inevitably turn her attention to Charleston. The construction of the Nashville and Louisville Rail-road will complete the link in this great chain that will place the commercial tributaries of Lake Erie within the influence of New-Orleans. By this road, and the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, New-Orleans can become the successful rival of New-York and Boston, and call back the millions of commerce that has left her for these cities.

This road will pass through the eastern portion of the manufacturing country of the Central West, and bear over its track a large portion of the products of the spindles and looms that must soon be found there. Whilst the undersigned believes, that the commerce of this road would be highly valuable as a source of revenue to the road, he is satisfied that the travel upon the road would be not only an inexhaustible source of revenue, but would contribute greatly to the wealth of New-Orleans. Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, large portions of Tennessee and Mississippi, would send their population over this road to this city. The man of business or pleasure, from the eastern and north-eastern Atlantic seaboard, *whilst in the West*, would find here his speediest and safest route to New-Orleans. By means of the railways extending to and circling Lake Erie, Boston and New-York would be placed within some three days' journey of the wharves of this city. By this road, and the railways projected and constructed across the mountains, our citizens would be speedily and safely transported to Washington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia. What would be the effect of all this upon New-Orleans? Her now vacant houses would be filled with active tenants. Her shops would be crowded with the talent and beauty of other states, who would spend millions in the city, and give to her additional thousands of active and industrious citizens. New-Orleans would cease to be the mere distributor of the wealth and commerce of other ports. She would become a *producing* city; and the manufacturer, the mechanic, and the artisan, would join with the merchant and the banker to enrich and populate the city of his adoption.

In reference to the rail-road proposed in the resolutions, running from Canton northwardly and centrally through the state of Mississippi, the undersigned will give some deductions made by him from reliable statistical information now before him. The citizens of Mississippi, living upon the line of this road, have evinced during the past year a deep interest in its construction. They have ascertained the length of the road to be about 173 miles, and that the cost of its construction and equipment will not exceed one million seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The number of bales of cotton grown in the counties through which the road passes was, in 1850, one hundred and fifty-seven thousand four hundred and eighty-eight bales. The population of the counties amounts to 124,231. It is estimated that not less than 93,031 bales of cotton will pass annually over the road. The income derived to the road from this source alone, at an average cost of 95 cents for transporting each bale, is \$88,379, which, with a return freight of like amount, would yield annually to the road \$176,758, for freights alone. This estimate is based alone upon the conveyance of cotton and return freights, exclusive of the products of the dairy, the farm-yard, the orchard, and the infinite variety of commercial products, which would be raised in a section of country so highly favored by nature as Central Mississippi. At some point on the northern boundary line of Mississippi this road would cross the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road; and whenever this is effected, the number of passengers that would annually pass over the road could not fall short of 50,000. The undersigned is satisfied from the statistics before him, that this road would yield a net revenue, derivable from the sources above indicated, of not less than thirteen per cent. upon the capital invested. Such would be the results from this road, were it never extended beyond the connection with the Memphis and Charleston Road. It is not, however, de-

signed by the friends of this measure that it shall stop short of some point on the Ohio River near Cairo. Who can then estimate its importance and value? It is estimated that in 50 years *one hundred million of souls will people the Mississippi valley*. To the heart of this great empire this road is to penetrate. It will there connect, intersect, or cross all the arteries and trunks of that stupendous system of railway, extending from the Atlantic seaboard to the great West. Every important city of our republic is stretching forth its iron arms to this point, and to this point is this road to be directed. It will rob the Mississippi of the half million of human beings that are annually borne on its surface. At the mouth of the Ohio will be given the traveler a choice as to the mode of his transit to your city. Who can doubt as to his choice between the "floating palace" and "the flying car?" The expense will be the same, but expedition, safety, and comfort, will all range themselves with the locomotive.

Not only will the travel over this road be great, but the commerce upon it will be almost invaluable. But little is yet known of the resources and wealth of the Central West, but that little promises a complete revolution in the manufacturing world. On the banks of the Ohio, the Wabash, and the Illinois, will be found the spindle and the loom, that will rob Manchester and Lowell of their strength. Food is found there in the greatest abundance, and cheaper than any point in the known world. The coal bed of the Central West will yield inexhaustible quantities of fuel at a price of half the cost of the same article at Manchester or Lowell. Water for dying is found as pure as that of the Mersey or the Merrimac; madder, the principal ingredient for coloring purposes, can be grown there as cheaply and abundantly as any point in the world; quercitron and sumac are abundant; fine clay and stone for building is inexhaustible; and last, but not least, cotton can be delivered there at 15 per cent. less cost than at either Liverpool or Boston. These are not the only advantages which this region will possess. In a few years an immediate and direct communication will be opened by railway with every important city on the Atlantic seaboard, giving her facilities of placing in her factories the few light articles not found there, and of sending to all parts of the country the products of her spindles and her looms. How can Lowell meet and vanquish this competition? She obtains her cotton from the interior of the Mississippi Valley, through New-Orleans. Her coal is dug out of the mountains of Pennsylvania. Her food and flour are carried from the great grain-fields of the North and Central West. Her dye-stuffs are imported from Europe and South America, and then the product of her looms are sent for distribution to the very points from which she draws her cotton and her food, her flour and her coals. England and New England, the mother and the daughter, must yield forever the sceptre of manufactures to the sons of the Central West. From this point, over this road, through New-Orleans and across the Isthmus, must pass the fabrics that will clothe the millions of Asia. Who can doubt, then, the importance of this road to New-Orleans?

The undersigned does not deem it necessary to say anything in relation to the benefits which would be conferred upon the sections of country through which these roads would respectively run. This point is daily discussed by both people and press, and the benefits to all classes of citizens fully understood. In the construction of the system of roads, presented by the resolutions, the state of Mississippi is deeply and vitally interested, and aid from her will be necessary for their completion. It is believed that aid will be furnished from her ample internal improvement fund.

The foregoing report is respectfully submitted to the General Committee on Routes.

Most respectfully, your obedient servant,

H. W. WALTER.

~~Advertisement addressed to Hon. Dr. Young, and copied from the New-Orleans Daily Picayune, No. 10, March 1, 1824.~~

No. VII.

LOUISIANA ROUTES.

TO THE COMMITTEE ON ROUTES.—

GENTLEMEN: I beg leave to submit a project for a rail-road leading from Shreveport, Louisiana, to terminate at Lake Providence, Louisiana. A project having been already submitted for a rail-road from Shreveport, by Dr. Young, to intersect the River Mississippi at Vicksburg, I should not now trouble the Committee with another report, starting at the same point, did I not believe the terminus of the contemplated road bad, and ill-advised, probably taken without being in possession of, or not having maturely considered, all the facts in relation to this road.

I will not attempt to impress the committee with the importance, the great necessity, and value of this road, as that has been so ably and eloquently done already by the chairman of the Committee of North Louisiana, on the road above referred to; therefore I shall only attempt to show the great propriety and advantage of giving this road a different route and terminus, and my reasons for so believing.

I will first state that, so early as 1824, the great necessity of a road to the Mississippi, for the convenience of the inhabitants of the northern parishes of this state was discovered,

and engaged the anxious attention of the legislature; an Act was passed appointing commissioners, living at different points on the Mississippi and on the contemplated route, who were thought to be the best acquainted with the country through which this road was to pass, to review and report the best route for a road from Monroe, Louisiana, to the nearest, best, and most acceptable point on the Mississippi River. This committee, after a laborious and faithful examination, reported a route terminating at Lake Providence. This road, according to that report, was cut out, and the cost paid by an appropriation from the state.

2d. In 1848, I believe, the legislature still feeling the importance of this road, and not satisfied with what it had done to forward the developments of the resources of this part of the state, or promote its interest, passed an Act requiring the state engineer, Col. Wooldridge, to examine three routes from Monroe, for a road, to intersect the river at Vicksburg, Millikin's Bend, or Providence, and report. Col. Wooldridge, after having examined the three routes *carefully*, reported in favor of Providence. This report I have endeavored to obtain, that I might submit it with this, but have not been able to find a copy in the city. The report was made to the legislature, and of course will be found at the seat of government.

3d. The interest felt in this road has not been confined to the State of Louisiana alone. Congress, in 1849 or '50, made an appropriation for the survey of routes from the Valley of the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean; under that appropriation W. H. Sidell, with an appropriate corps of engineers, proceeded to examine the country that lies between the Lower Mississippi, in Louisiana, and the great bend of the Red River in Arkansas. (Capt. Sidell's report is herewith submitted.) This report relates immediately to this route.—Although this survey was made to intersect the Red River at Fulton, the same ground will be passed over by a road from Lake Providence to Shreveport, so far as Farmersville, as though it went to Fulton. The road from Farmersville will be much cheaper and easier made than a road from Farmersville to Fulton; the farther south you go, after leaving Farmersville, the lower the hills, and of course fewer and shallower cuts to be made.

4th. This road is now, and has been, for four or five years, traveled by thousands of emigrants, and passed over by wagons and every description of carriages. This fall, five wagons, on an average, per day, have loaded at Providence with merchandise, bound to Shreveport, Bastrop, Farmersville, and other places contiguous to this route; cotton has been hauled to Providence in considerable quantities, from all the above named places, to Providence.

5th. The route which I am contemplating, will pass, as nearly as practicable, on a straight line from Shreveport to Providence, passing through, and running contiguous to, the parishes of Bossier, Caddo, Claiborne, Jackson, Union, Washita, Morehouse, and Carroll, in Louisiana, beside several counties in Arkansas and Texas, which would be accommodated by this road; thereby affording the greatest facilities to the greatest numbers of any other route contemplated.

In conclusion, I would remark, that the feeling on the subject of this road is very intense in all the northern part of Louisiana and Southern Arkansas—that meetings have been held, and delegates appointed to this Convention—proceedings of meetings in the parishes on this line of route I have seen published; and I would be glad if I had them, that I might present them to your honorable body, as the delegates themselves, by the very low stage of water and bad roads, have been prevented from being personally present.

I have been able to find but the report from Union parish, which is herewith submitted; also, the remarks of the Minden Herald on this subject. Many other reasons could be given to show that this route possesses advantages over all other routes from Shreveport to the Mississippi River; also the great interest felt in, and preference given to, by the inhabitants of Northern Louisiana, this route over any other; but, unwilling to tax your patience any further, and believing that I have said enough to induce your favorable notice of this route, I submit this report without any further remarks. All of which is respectfully submitted.

 This road will be from 150 to 160 miles long.

M. B. SELLERS,
Delegate from Parish of Carroll, La.

Having read the above report, I fully concur with it.

J. H. BRIGHAM,
Delegate from the Parish of Morehouse, La.
J. T. HENDERSON,
Delegate from Union Parish, La.

NEW-ORLEANS, January 9, 1852.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

C. S. TARPLEY, OF MISSISSIPPI.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 15.

IT has been our purpose, in this series of biographies, to select from each of the states such citizens as are most distinguished for their advocacy of leading public improvements, as manufactories, commerce, agriculture, rail-roads, etc., and upon the last ground we have taken Col. Tarpley. To him the South-west owes a great deal. He was the very first, we believe, to project the contemplated rail-road from Jackson to New-Orleans, which has been enlarged into a great programme of improvements, embracing the whole state of Mississippi, and terminating only at Nashville, or near the mouth of the Ohio. We are a witness of the fact, that when his series of papers was published through the press, advocating the road, he was ridiculed or abused, as a dreamer, or an interested land-holder. It was common to sneer at a rail-road through the piney woods, dependent for its support upon tar, turpentine, and ashes! Even New-Orleans turned a cold shoulder to the movement, which she now regards as her salvation and her future fortress. When Col. Tarpley came to the city, what public man or leading citizen was willing to commit himself to the project? Feeling the deep interest that we did, we took him around to test the prevailing opinion. Every one would have himself excused. One had invested in Tehuantepec stock, another was a director in the Mobile road, a third could not see what we wanted with rail-roads, with the river at our very doors. The majority agreed that *nothing could be done*; and this was the sort of cheer that we gave to the large Mississippi delegation who came down to meet with us in Convention; but who, seeing not a single leading citizen take a seat

in the body with the slightest interest, went away swearing terribly against our two per cent. a-month capitalists.*

However, times have changed, and the stone which the builders rejected has come to be the head of the corner. The despised beginnings are having glorious fruitions. Look at the late immense rail-road gathering in New-Orleans, and then ask if bread is ever thrown upon the waters in vain? Whilst we give credit to other able and distinguished gentlemen who have been so active in these matters of improvement, it is but a sheer act of duty to remember favorably the early services of Col. Tarpley. The Rail-road Convention appreciated these services when it called him to preside over its organization.

Col. Tarpley was born in Virginia, in 1802, of parents who had been reduced to great poverty; and who emigrated to Tennessee, in 1808, where his mother, an intelligent and strong-minded woman, added to the family support by teaching school. His early education was at Cumberland College, and afterwards at Harpeth Academy; though when the family removed to Giles County, so straitened were its circumstances, that he had to forego education, except such as night studies would afford, and labor throughout the year in the field at the hardest drudgery.

* The valuable series of papers contributed by Col. Tarpley upon the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road, were afterwards thrown into pamphlet form, and largely circulated. We also extracted from them in the Review, and have intended sometime or other to republish them in full. Col. Tarpley was one of the committee of five appointed to get up the South-western Rail-road Convention in New-Orleans, and took the field in Mississippi in its favor, making a great many most effective speeches.

When he was relieved of this, in 1819, he was enabled to attend school during winter; but as it was five miles from home, he was in the habit of carrying blankets and provisions on Monday morning for the whole week, studying at night by the blaze of fag-gots, in utter loneliness, and sleeping upon the hard floor! By these assiduous and unremitting toils he succeeded in keeping at the head of all the classes in Latin, logic, rhetoric, mathematics, etc., and winning high encomiums on every side, and the first honors.

After teaching school for one year, as a financial shift, Col. T. entered the law office of the late James K. Polk and Gov. A. V. Brown, who were at that time partners in business. These gentlemen afforded him great aid in his studies, and even pecuniary assistance, for which he has never ceased to express proper gratitude. In this manner three years were passed, or at least the winters, for during the summer he found it necessary to undergo physical labor upon the farm, for the support of his father's family, which, by the way, he continued to do for several years, after his admission to the bar, until he had placed them in a position of comfort and competency. We believe, even to the present day, he has provided for quite a large family of sisters and brothers.

Col. Tarpley was associated in 1828, or

1830, in partnership with the Hon. John McKinley, afterwards one of the Judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, but removed to Mississippi, in 1836, where he very soon entered upon one of the largest law practices ever known in the South-west, and by which he has accumulated a large fortune. In the spring term of 1838, his partner, Judge Taylor, and himself, instituted one thousand suits, one-half of which were in the Federal Courts, and of necessity over \$500 in amount each. His present business is very large, and almost entirely confined to the Supreme and Chancery Courts.

On the resignation, a short time since, of the Hon. Wm. L. Sharkey, Chief Justice of the state, the office was tendered by Governor Whitfield to Col. Tarpley, and accepted, though he resigned it shortly afterwards.

With the political opinions and views of Col. Tarpley we have nothing to do in our Journal, selecting, as we do, our subjects from both sides indiscriminately. In this arena of politics we doubt not that he has made his enemies—quite as many, perhaps, as other men. With them we leave him to fight out his battles, and without doubt he will find foemen ready armed and worthy of his steel.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—U. S. TREASURY REPORT, 1852.

MR. CORWIN has at last handed in his voluminous report, which we regretted was not in hand when noticing the other departments last month.

The report opens with a detailed statement of the receipts and expenditures of the government during the year to June 30, 1851, and the estimates for the year to June 30, 1852, which have been before noted. A table is given, showing the increased expenditures (\$9,549,080 19), on account of our new territorial possessions, towards which a liberal policy is recommended, as they will ultimately amply repay the present expenditures by permanent and powerful augmentation of the national wealth; add for the ordinary expenses of the government, as per estimates, \$33,343,219 07, and we have the sum of \$42,892,299 19, as the total estimated demands upon the treasury for the next fiscal year, leaving (the report says) an estimated

balance in the treasury, on the 1st of July, 1853, of \$20,366,443 90. This sum, it is believed, will be ample to meet the amount required on that day for the redemption of the loan of 1843, then due, of \$6,237,931 35, and such additional appropriations beyond the estimates submitted as may be made during the present and next session of Congress.

The table of the public debt is then given, and the pith of the report, including important recommendations by Mr. Corwin on the subject of the tariff, the iron interests, &c., succeeds, as follows:

We proceed to make a few extracts from the body of the report.

The unexpected addition to the boundaries of our country, covering an area of more than five hundred and twenty-six thousand square miles, has, without doubt, been one cause of the large and sudden increase of our foreign

importations, and consequent increased receipts from custom duties. Our expenses consequent upon such acquisition, have more than kept pace with the increase of receipts, and they will remain permanent charges upon the treasury. Revenue to meet these required expenditures must be provided for, and that during a period when our public debt is maturing. It cannot for one moment be thought advisable to presuppose a renewal of any portion of such debt, and therefore it should be our aim to obtain revenue sufficient to meet these maturing liabilities, in addition to the annual expenses of the government.

The receipts from all sources for the last fiscal year amounted to.... \$52,312,979 87
The appropriations to..... 51,428,414 49

Being an excess of receipts of \$884,565 38

The estimated aggregate receipts for the current fiscal year are placed at \$51,500,000. The expenditures, as estimated and appropriated, amount to \$50,952,902 59, being an excess of estimated receipts over estimated expenditures of \$547,097 41.

The receipts for the next fiscal year are estimated at \$51,800,000, the expenditures at \$42,892,299 19, being an excess of receipts over expenditures of \$8,907,700 81. Making an aggregate estimated excess of receipts over expenditures for the three years ending 30th June, 1853, of \$10,339,363 63, subject, however, to a reduction to the extent of any appropriations which may be made for this or the next fiscal years additional to the estimates submitted.

Should Congress appropriate to meet the ordinary wants of the government, and to cover the expenditures required by our new territories, as submitted by this department, the balance, at the close of the fiscal year, ending 30th June, 1853, will be more than sufficient to meet the amount required on the 1st of July following, for the redemption of the public debt due that day.

The question presents itself, in view of the absolute necessity for a continuance of the present receipts from customs, whether in all the branches of the industry of our country there is that healthy and vigorous action which is the basis of substantial and lasting prosperity. Without this we can with no certainty presume upon any fixed amount of continuous receipts.

The gross exports for the last fiscal year amounted to \$217,517,130; of which there was of specie \$99,291,880, and of foreign merchandise re-exported \$9,738,695, leaving as the exports of domestic productions the sum of \$178,546,535. This presents a large increase upon like exports of any previous year, and exceeds that of the last fiscal year in the sum of \$43,646,322. I regret that this increase is merely of an accidental nature, and likely to be confined to the year just passed.

For the year ending the 30th June, 1850,

there were exported 635,381,604 lbs. of cotton, at an average value of 11½ cents per lb., giving an aggregate value of \$71,984,616, while 1,026,602,269 lbs. exported the year previous was valued at \$66,396,967. For the year ending 30th June last, there was exported 927,237,069 lbs.—valued at \$112,315,317, averaging 12 11-100 cents per lb.; thus exhibiting an apparent excess in the value of this staple alone, over that of the previous year, of \$40,330,701.

The very deficient crop of 1849-50 caused an enhancement in the value of cotton of nearly double that of the previous year, and a still further advance upon the average price of the last year, thus giving the large excess in the aggregate value of the exports before stated. It must be borne in mind, however, that these values as reported are not always the prices realized on sales abroad. They are the declared values of the exports from our country, against which bills of exchange are usually drawn—and not the prices received on actual sales; and it is notorious that the immense losses on the shipments of cotton during the last year have reduced the amount actually realized by the sales in Europe very far below the official value in the custom-house returns. The crop of the present year has exceeded that of the last, and will, from its abundance, probably restore the aggregate value to near the average of previous years.

The exports of breadstuffs and provisions, in 1847, were \$68,701,921; in 1849, \$38,155,597; and in 1851, \$21,948,653, which latter exceeds the exports of 1840, when the corn laws of England were in full force, only \$2,881,118.

The exports of rice for the last fiscal year, as compared with the previous year, exhibit a decrease of \$460,017, and that of tobacco a decrease of \$635,834. The products of planting and agriculture for the past year have been unusually large. All Europe, with inconsiderable exceptions, has been blessed with like abundance; and without some unexpected disturbing causes, seriously affecting markets abroad, there is every reason to anticipate a still further decline in our exports for the coming year.

Our total imports for the last year amount to \$215,725,995, producing a revenue of more than forty-nine millions of dollars. The balances of trade during that period, in addition to the large amount of the various stocks of the country, caused an export of upwards of twenty-nine millions of specie. The export of the precious metals still continues, and at a rapidly increasing ratio, having amounted already, in the first five months of the current fiscal year, to \$27,594,263, which is nearly equal to the export for the entire year ending 30th June, 1851.

This increased ratio in the export of specie continues, notwithstanding the large supply of foreign exchange, predicated upon the shipment of the cotton crop, which is now

rapidly reaching the sea ports at the South, and is of course going forward to European markets in very large quantities. When the bulk of this crop has been shipped, and the supply of cotton bills consequently diminished, the export demand for specie will of course be still further increased, unless there should be a very large falling off in the heavy importations of foreign productions.

With abundant and plentiful harvests, both at home and abroad; with a large excess in the production of cotton over that of the previous years, and its consequent decline in value; and with no evidences of any increased demand abroad for our general exports, the grave and difficult question of our ability to pay for these continued large importations presents itself for the consideration of Congress.

2.—ADVANCEMENT IN CALIFORNIA.

We have received from San Francisco a circular, which furnishes another evidence, that with the star of western empire, and almost at the same pace, travel the arts, the sciences, and the improvements of our countrymen. This circular announces the establishment of an Institute for the Promotion of Internal Improvements, and the advancement throughout the entire Pacific Coast, but more especially in California, of all the great interests of agriculture, commerce, horticulture, mining, manufacturing, and the arts and sciences. To an existing museum, it is proposed to add native specimens in mineralogy, botany, coschology, entomology, ornithology, ichthyology, etc.; inventions and improvements, and the rare products of the South Sea Islands, Asia, Australia, etc., for the purposes of distribution. An annual fair will be held, at which premiums will be awarded, and occasional public lectures and addresses delivered. Alden A. M. Jackson is the Actuary of the Institute.

3.—TO RAIL-ROAD COMPANIES.

We are happy to call the attention of rail-road companies to the advertisement of P. Chouteau, Jr. & Co., a house engaged in the purchase of rail-road iron, and in the sale of rail-road securities. The house have branches both at New-York and St. Louis, Mo. It is of the highest respectability, and the name of Mr. Chouteau, one of the partners, is well and favorably known throughout the South and West. Its means are ample; and we learn that its business

arrangement with the well-known banker, George Peabody, Esq., of London, are such as to enable them to make negotiations for iron upon the lowest and most favorable terms, and to connect with the purchase of this article the sale of rail-road bonds.

4.—UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

Professors J. Lawrence Smith and Chilton, have been delivering a course of lectures in the hall of the university, upon subjects of chemistry and geology. These lectures have been experimental, in order to test the disposition of the people of New-Orleans to sustain such efforts for the promotion of science and knowledge. The price of tickets was put at a very low figure. The result, however, though honorable to these gentlemen, has not spoken very flattering for our city. Science at best is at a discount here, and those who would promote it must not expect the same success as tailors, blacksmiths, and bar-keepers. We learn, however, that Professor Smith has been secured as lecturer for the Lyceum, where his profound and extensive chemical researches and great skill as a manipulator will be brought into nightly requisition.

5.—NOTE TO SUBSCRIBERS.

The edition was not large enough to supply all of our subscribers with the January No., 1859, and we are obliged to reprint it. Those who have not received their numbers will receive a thousand apologies for an event which never occurred to us before, and we hope will never occur again. The numbers will be re-issued and forwarded to them within a month or two.

We have again to request our subscribers who are in arrears, to remit promptly, as it is only in this way that they can be just to themselves and us. Where agents call, we are taxed with a commission, which takes away the largest part of profit.

6.—EDITORIAL NOTE.

We would give notice to our subscribers and the public, that Mr. R. G. Barnwell, our associate in the editorial, etc., will continue his tour, with the view of extending the circulation of the Review. His valuable services, sound scholarship, and gentlemanly deportment, will recommend him to all who are interested in the success of this work, and the promotion of Southern literature generally.